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PROCEEDINGS

OF



THE FIFTIETH ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

Ontario Educational
Association

HELD IN

C¹

TORONTO

On the 18th, 19th and 20th April, 1911.



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PROCEEDINGS
OF
The Fiftieth Annual Convention
OF THE
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY—TUESDAY.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO,
April 18th, 1911.

A joint meeting of all Departments and Sections was held in Convocation Hall. President Merchant took the chair at 3.45 p.m.

George A. Auden, M.A., M.D., Medical Superintendent for the Education Committee, Birmingham, England, addressed the Association on Medical Inspection in Schools. See page 86.

The Association adjourned.

TUESDAY EVENING.

At 6.30 o'clock a banquet in celebration of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the founding of the Ontario Educational Association was held in the examination room, Convocation Hall. About 600 members and their friends were present and those who spoke were His Honor John M. Gibson, Lieutenant-Governor; Sir James P. Whitney, Premier; R. A. Falconer, LL.D.; Archdeacon Cody, LL.D.; A. H. U. Colquhoun, LL.D.; R. Alexander, Robert W. Doan, J. H. Smith, S. F. Lazier, LL.B., Alfred Baker, M.A., F. S. Spence, Wm. Scott, B.A., L. E. Embree, LL.D. F. W. Merchant, M.A., presided.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

A joint meeting of all Departments and Sections was held in the Physics Building, University of Toronto, at 3.45 p.m., President Merchant in the chair.

A. H. U. Colquhoun, LL.D., Deputy Minister of Education, represented the Minister of Education in giving an address of welcome. See page 99.

Dr. Auden, of Birmingham, England, addressed the Association on "The Medical Care of Children in Schools." See page 101.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 8 p.m., President Merchant in the chair.

Rev. Provost Macklem conducted devotional exercises.

The minutes of the meeting held in 1910 were called for.

Moved by Mr. W. Prendergast, seconded by Mr. Wm. Scott, that as the minutes for 1910 have been printed and distributed, they be now confirmed. Carried.

Telegrams were read from:

1. Mr. J. Forsythe Smith, President of the Okanogan and North Kootenay Teachers' Association, conveying to the Ontario Educational Association fraternal felicitations and cordial wishes for successful meetings.

2. President Creelman, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, expressing his regret at not being able to be present.

Letters from:

1. Hon. R. A. Pyne, Minister of Education, regretting his inability to attend the meeting of the Association and saying that Dr. Colquhoun, Deputy Minister of Education, would represent him and give the address of welcome.

2. Mr. James White, in reference to the affiliation of the Ontario Educational Association with the Commission of Conservation.

3. Miss Annie Lowrey, Secretary Women's Institute, asking for a grant in aid of the Laura Secord Memorial Hall.

4. Mrs. Ord Marshall, Hon. Secretary, League of the Empire, asking for a further consideration of the question of the affiliation of the Ontario Educational Association with the League of the Empire.

5. Mr. B. E. French, Secretary of the Board of Education, Caledonia, saying that the said Board are heartily in favor of the proposal to have a permanent lecturer on purity for Ontario appointed by the Education Department.

6. Sir James Yoxall, M.P., London, England, General Secretary, National Union of Teachers, saying that it is not practicable for him to accept the invitation to attend this meeting, and also conveying a standing invitation on the part of the Union for the presence, at any of their Conferences, of a deputation from the Ontario Educational Association.

Mr. William Scott moved, seconded by Mr. J. Dearness,

That all the communications requiring the expenditure of money in any way be referred to the incoming Board of Directors. Carried.

Mr. J. Smith moved, seconded by Mr. R. Alexander, That a telegram conveying the greetings of this Association be sent to the Okanogan and North Kootenay Teachers' Association. Carried.

President F. W. Merchant, M.A., Ph.D., delivered the Annual Address. See page 115.

A. Ross Hill, Ph.D., LL.D., President of the University of Missouri, addressed the Association on "Vocational Training and Culture." See page 124.

Moved by Professor Ellis of Queen's University, seconded by Professor Hume, of Toronto University, That a vote of thanks be tendered to Dr. Hill. Carried.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President</i>	- - - -	J. H. Laughton, Parkhill.
<i>General Secretary</i>	- -	Robert W. Doan, Toronto.
<i>Treasurer</i>	- - - -	W. J. Hendry, Toronto.

Moved by Mr. H. T. J. Coleman, seconded by Mr. J. H. Smith, That the hearty thanks of this Association be and are hereby tendered to the Minister of Education for the strong support both financial and otherwise that he has given to this Association at its Jubilee meeting, for the interest he has added to the sessions of the Association by bringing Dr. Auden from the Motherland to address the Convention and for the careful consideration he has in the past given to the recommendations of the Association. Carried.

The Auditors' report was read by the Secretary and on motion was adopted.

Mr. William Scott submitted the following report from the Committee on Superannuation.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SUPERANNUATION.

The Committee on Superannuation beg to report as follows:

1. The Actuary, Mr. T. Bradshaw, who stands at the head of his profession in this Province, and to whom the Provincial Government submitted the scheme which was prepared by your committee and printed in full on pages 10 to 14 of the Proceedings of this Association for 1906, has reported to the Government.

2. This report has been submitted to the Advisory Council with a request that it be brought before the various departments at the present meeting. This being the case, it would be out of place to take up the time of the General Association with a detailed analysis of the report. It is sufficient to say that the Actuary finds as follows:

"After making two independent investigations, I am of the opinion the scheme outlined is a workable one, and that it is worthy of confidence in so far as new members entering the profession and for members now in the service aged 30 and under are concerned."

Regarding those whose age exceeds 30, he says the scheme would involve an important liability. He suggests a scheme to permit them to receive a fair pension and at the same time not involve the Province in too great a liability. He thinks the salaries have been so low as to be out of all proportion to the services rendered, and he concludes the report as follows:

"When we consider the important part played in the life of a nation by the public schools, it seems strange that the state of affairs here set forth (low salaries) should have been allowed to exist. The assertion may readily be proved that in no other walk of life have the laborers been treated so ill. I think it cannot be gainsaid that there is a debt owing these teachers by the Province for their many years of valuable and arduous service at small salaries. This debt, which would be represented by the accumulated difference between salaries commensurate with their services and the salaries actually received, would be more than sufficient to provide the pensions now advocated.

3. Your Committee desire to say that the Actuary reported that 4,779 replies were received from 11,268 members of the teaching profession from whom information was asked.

4. Your Committee would respectfully suggest that a committee representing all the sections and departments be appointed with instructions to urge as strongly as possible a scheme of superannuation upon the Government of the Province, and that the travelling expenses of such members of this committee as reside out of Toronto be paid by the Association.

Moved by Mr. Scott, seconded by Dr. Pakenham, That the report be adopted. Carried.

In accordance with the report on Superannuation the following committee was appointed:

Rev. Chancellor Burwash, Victoria College; Mr. J. Dearness, London Normal School; Mr. J. Russell Stuart, Kingston; Mr. Wm. Scott, Toronto Normal School; Mr. J. H. Putman, P. S. Inspector, Ottawa; Principal Embree, Jarvis St. Collegiate Institute, Toronto; Principal R. A. Gray, Oakwood High School, Toronto; Mr. L. K. Murton, Oshawa; Dean Ellis, Kingston; Mr. D. Young, Guelph; Mr. G. K. Powell, 29 St. James Ave., Toronto; Mr. Robert Alexander, Ottawa; Miss L. A. Carruthers, 132 Robert St., Toronto; Miss H. Johnston, 296 Spadina Ave., Toronto; Miss J. Laidlaw, London; Miss J. Semple, Toronto; Mr. J. D. Denny, Ottawa; Mr. Alex. Steele, Orangeville; Mr. A. L. Burt, Brantford; Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound; Dr. White, Lindsay; Rev. Jas. Buchanan, Dundalk.

Moved by Mr. J. S. Deacon, seconded by Mr. G. G. McNabb, That the thanks of this Association be and are hereby tendered to President Falconer, of the University of Toronto, and the other authorities of the University for their kindness in allowing this convention the use of the University buildings, and for the many other kind considerations which have been shown to this convention. Carried.

Moved by R. W. Doan, seconded by Dr. Pakenham, That the thanks of this Association are due and are hereby tendered to Dr. Auden for the addresses given by him to this convention: to the president for the judicious manner in which he has conducted the business of the convention, and to the editors of the daily papers for the full and accurate accounts of the proceedings of the convention which have been given in the newspapers. Carried.

On behalf of the Association the President thanked the members of the Banquet Committee for their services in connection with the banquet on Tuesday evening.

The National Anthem was sung and the President declared the meeting adjourned.

*MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH.

The College and High School Department met in the West Hall of the Main building of the University College at 2 o'clock on the afternoon of Tuesday, April 18th.

In the unavoidable absence in Europe of the President, Professor D. R. Keys, the Vice-President, Mr. W. J. Fenton, of Brampton, took the chair.

On motion of Mr. A. E. Coombs, seconded by Mr. Coates, the minutes, printed in the proceedings of the Association for the year 1910, were taken as read and confirmed.

A communication from Mrs. Dickson, wife of the late principal of St. Margaret's College, was read, in which she acknowledged, with thanks, the resolution of sympathy with her and the family, passed at the last meeting of this Department.

A letter from Mr. Brobner, Registrar of the University of Toronto, was also read, inviting the Department to give an expression of opinion on the replacing of Arithmetic and English Grammar on the Junior Matriculation examination.

The President's address, entitled "A Message from Munich" was read by Mr. F. H. Clarke in the absence of Professor Keys. See page 134.

On motion of Mr. A. Steele, seconded by Dr. H. I. Strang, it was decided to print the address in the Annual Proceedings.

Dr. L. E. Embree gave an address on "How to Secure Greater Interest in the Election of Members of the Senate of the University of Toronto."

The apparent lack of interest was attributed very largely to the inopportune time at which the elections were held.

Discussion of the subject was taken part in by Dr. Strang and Messrs. Steele, Hagarty, Mayberry, Martin and McDougall.

Dr. Embree moved, seconded by Mr. A. W. Burt, That this meeting of the College and High School Department recommend that the election of members of the Senate of the University of Toronto be held in the month of May or early in June, and that due notice of the date of such election be given in the press of the city of Toronto. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. A. H. McDougall, seconded by Mr. E. W. Hagarty, That in the opinion of the College and High School Department, publication of the details of the business taken up at meetings of the Senate of the University of Toronto would greatly increase the interest taken by teachers in the election of representatives to the Senate;

That the representatives of the High School teachers are hereby requested to bring this motion to the attention of the Senate; and that a copy of this resolution be sent to the Registrar of the University of Toronto. Carried.

Professor M. A. Mackenzie, of the University of Toronto, addressed the meeting on "Should Arithmetic be replaced on the Junior Matriculation Examination?" In the course of his remarks he stated that in his observation of the arithmetical attainments of the average matriculant, arithmetic as a science or from the theoretical point of view was fairly well understood, but as an art it was not well understood. Pupils failed to grasp the significance of arithmetical operations. The necessity for checking calculations was not appreciated. He thought that if an examination were to be held, the subject should be made of a more practical nature, the use of logarithms and an up-to-date practical knowledge of interest and discount should be required of candidates.

Discussion on the question of replacing Arithmetic and English Grammar both on the Normal Entrance and on the Junior Matriculation examinations was carried on for some time. Some of those who took part in the discussion were Messrs. Steele, Levan, Mayberry, Crasweller, Gundry, Gray and Dr. Strang.

On motion it was agreed to postpone the further discussion of the subject until Wednesday afternoon.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

A joint meeting of the College and High School Departments and the High School Principals' Section was held in the West Hall at 2 p.m. of Wednesday, April 19th, 1911.

For the minutes of this meeting see the High School Principals' Section, page 27.

THURSDAY, APRIL 20TH.

The third session of the College and High School Department was held in the West Hall at 10 a.m., of Thursday, April 20th, 1911. Mr. W. J. Fenton was in the chair.

Mr. John Henderson, M.A., St. Catharines, gave an address on "Reminiscences of Education in Ontario." See page 162. Another address on the same subject by Mr. G. A. Chase, B.A., Ayr, was read by Mr. F. H. Clarke, in the absence of Mr. Chase. See page 147.

H. I. Strang, M.A., LL.D., addressed the meeting on "Reminiscences of High School Inspectors and Inspections." See p. 153.

On motion of Mr. C. L. Crasweller, seconded by Professor W. J. Patterson, it was unanimously agreed to publish all three addresses in the Proceedings of the Association.

Mr. S. Martin moved, seconded by Mr. I. M. Levan, That a very hearty vote of thanks be tendered to Messrs. Henderson and Chase and also to Dr. Strang for their able and exceedingly interesting addresses, and that our best wishes be offered for their long life and prosperity, and for their continued good health. Carried.

Dr. Strang and Mr. Henderson briefly responded.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President</i> - - - -	Mr. W. J. Fenton.
<i>Vice-President</i> - -	Professor Hume.
<i>Secretary</i> - - - -	Mr. W. C. Ferguson.

Councillors:

<i>Classical Section</i> - - - - -	Mr. W. C. Michell.
<i>Mathematical Section</i> - - - -	Mr. T. Kennedy.
<i>Commercial Section</i> - - - - -	Mr. William Ward.
<i>Modern Language Section</i> - - -	Dr. Needler.
<i>English and History Section</i> - -	
<i>Natural Science Section</i> - - -	

The committee appointed at the joint meeting held on Wednesday afternoon reported that the following resolution had been agreed upon:

That in the opinion of the College and High School Department

1. Arithmetic and Grammar should be examination subjects for Junior Matriculation.

2. Provision should be made to permit the examinations in these subjects, along with that in Canadian and British History, to be held in a different year from the remaining part of the Junior Matriculation Examination.

On separate motions made by Mr. S. Martin, seconded by Mr. A. W. Burt, both clauses of the resolution were carried.

On motion by Mr. H. S. Robertson, seconded by Mr. S. Martin, the meeting endorsed the action of the High School Principals' Section at their Wednesday meeting in the five clauses *re* Reading, Arithmetic and Grammar, etc. See p. 28.

The meeting then adjourned.

R. A. GRAY, *Secretary*.

MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH.

At the session this forenoon the President, Professor A. H. Young, gave an address on "The Modern Language Association's Twenty-five Years," reviewing the history and work of the Association since its foundation, a quarter of a century ago; and Mr. P. W. Mueller, one in German on "Die Philosophie der Sprache."

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

Address by Prof. J. Macgillivray, on "The Study of German from Various Points of View," and by Prof. G. H. Needler, on "The School Systems of Prussia and Ontario."

THURSDAY, APRIL 20TH.

Papers were read, by Mr. G. S. Bale, on "The Life of Alfred de Musset," by Professor W. H. Fraser, on "The Direct Method in

the French Lycée," and by Mr. W. C. Ferguson, on "French Summer Schools."

As a result of discussion following Professor Macgillivray's paper of the preceding session, a resolution was adopted for transmission to the Superintendent of Education, urging him to use his influence in the furthering of Modern Language teaching in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, by better provision for oral instruction, the allotting of more space in the school timetables for the modern languages, the introduction of an oral examination test, improved conditions for leave of absence to teachers desiring to study in France and Germany, and due consideration of the claims of modern languages in the appointment of future Inspectors.

The executive were instructed to continue the negotiations for an exchange of teachers with Prussia.

Officers for 1912 were elected as follows:—President, Miss J. S. Hillock; Vice-President, Prof. J. Macgillivray; Sec.-Treas., G. H. Needler; Councillors, Miss J. W. Carter, Miss H. C. Parlow; Messrs. F. H. Clarke, L. E. Horning, A. J. Husband, A. H. Young.

MINUTES OF NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

The Annual Meeting was held in Biological Building, April 19th and 20th, Mr. D. Whyte, President, in the chair. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

The President then addressed about forty members, and in a humorous, reminiscient way described the science teaching of the past 25 years, pointing out that it was done largely without equipment and often by teachers of mathematics or the languages. No practical work was done by the pupils, and little by the teacher. Great advancement had been made, but there was still room for improvement.

The paper by Mr. W. H. Fletcher on "Theory of Ionization" was explained by him to be the relation of the theory to the teaching of chemistry rather than an extensive discussion of the theory itself. An abstract of this paper was ordered to be read. In the discussion which followed, Mr. Cornish advised the teaching of the facts and then the making of the generalization without hesitation. Dr. Allen complimented Mr. Fletcher on the excellent

presentation of the molecular theory leading to the theory of the dissociation into ions in aqueous solution.

The address of Professor A. P. Coleman on "The Work of Glaciers," accompanied with lantern slides, was much appreciated. Beginning with the snow crystal, fluffy and elegant, he passed on to the compact in mass as found in glaciers of the Alaskan boundary, the Selkirks, and the Alps, remarking that our new world glaciers offer as good a field of study as the old. The slides illustrated the complete glacier and its various phases—its lateral moraines, medial and terminal, its power of breaking in cascades, crevasses, and re-cementing into solid river ice again, its river of water issuing at the front of the mountain glacier, its rush during the day and its dry stream bed in the morning. He showed also the continental glaciers of Alaska, Greenland and the Antarctic regions. These are of the kind which produced the boulder clay so familiar to us in Ontario. A fine specimen of clear limestone scratched by the embedded stones of gravel in the glacier was shown from Dundas quarry. Nothing was a better means of stimulating the imagination than a visit to a bank of boulder clay. A vote of thanks was tendered Dr. Coleman.

The second session began 9.30 a.m., Thursday. A paper on "Biology in Secondary Schools" was read by A. P. Gundry. After a historical sketch from the 80's to the present, such topics as "Why study biology?" "What course to pursue in the study," "How far classification should be carried," "Is the present time allowed sufficient for the subject?" "Is the equipment adequate?" were discussed in a suggestive rather than in an exhaustive way for lack of time. This paper was ordered to be printed.

The "Study of Birds" by W. E. Saunders, of London, proved a most interesting and helpful number, coming as it did from an expert who knows his subject at first hand. Several stuffed specimens were utilized in illustration of his subject. He advised:

1. That all pupils should become interested in some natural history subject—e.g. birds. He objected to the name "Nature Study." as it was "the greatest kind of fun."

2. That individual work is the only kind for bird study in the field. Class study is impossible there on account of the quiet patience necessary in the study of birds and their ways.

3. That pupils should be led to recognize the struggle for survival among birds. He illustrated by the great mortality mani-

fested among the robins. A defective bird physically had absolutely no chance of survival.

4. That pupils should note how birds gain a living when competition is so keen; for example, the swallows, fly-catchers, warblers, wood-peckers, all feed upon insects, but attack their prey in different ways and places.

5. The pupil should become interested in one bird, say the chickadee, and then in a family such as the woodpeckers.

6. That the pupil should pay special attention to the bill, as it was a clue to the bird's nature and habits.

A vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Saunders, and in accepting the vote, he generously offered his advice on any subject about birds at any time and also offered to supply culls from his own collection so long as they lasted, free of charge.

A "Course in Middle School Chemistry" was outlined by Mr. A. Smith. Each member was supplied with a type-written copy of a suggested Course. An abstract of the paper is printed elsewhere in this report.

The afternoon session of Thursday was held in the Government High School.

A discussion on "Nature Clubs" was led by A. Cosens. Mr. Patterson and Mr. Ivey followed in the discussion. The opinions expressed approval of the idea, but all agreed that it was difficult to carry it through successfully.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>Hon. President</i>	- - - -	Prof. A. P. Coleman.
<i>President</i>	- - - - -	A. P. Gundry.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - - - -	W. J. Hamilton.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- - -	F. J. Johnston
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	A. Pearson, A. Smith, P. M. Thompson, H. B. Fetterley, F. P. Gavin, W. H. Fletcher.

A report from the Committee on Text Books was given verbally by J. B. Turner. He stated that a new Physics text-book would be ready for September, 1911. He recommended Crew's Physics for Senior Leaving work.

With regard to the new course in Physics, Dr. Merchant asked for an expression of opinion from the Section.

Moved by F. P. Gavin and seconded by G. A. Carefoot, That

the Text-book Committee, with the President, be a committee to present the views of the Section to the Department with regard to the examination standard required in this Senior Physics Course. Carried.

On motion of F. P. Gavin and A. Pearson the members of the Text-book Committee were continued in office. The committee consists of T. J. Ivey, S. B. McCready and J. B. Turner, convener.

An inspection of the Government School under the direction of G. A. Cornish and H. A. Grainger was made and this concluded the work of the Section.

MINUTES OF CLASSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH.

The Section met in Room 13, University College, at 10 a.m.

In the absence of the President, Lyman C. Smith, B.A., Dr. Strang was requested to preside. Letters of regret from the President and Mr. W. J. Twohey, at inability to be present, were read.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary President</i>	- - -	William C. Michell.
<i>President</i>	- - - - -	Prof. J. C. Robertson.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - - - -	A. E. Coombs.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- - -	J. H. Mills, Parkdale Collegiate Institute, Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	E. O. Sliter, Prof. Carruthers, E. W. Hagarty, P. F. Munro, W. A. Glass, Dr. Strang.

In the absence of Mr. W. J. Twohey, the paper on "The Ideal Examination Paper in Classics," was read by Mr. J. H. Mills. It proved an interesting topic for discussion, and was fully endorsed by all.

Mr. R. A. Little followed with "Some Uses of *ut* with the Subjunctive in Cæsar and Cicero." Printed copies, showing the various uses and the explanations given in the Grammars and texts, were distributed among the members. The practical discussion of each example proved very instructive to all.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

Mr. P. F. Munro was first called upon. He showed "How to teach Cæsar, Book IV., Chapter 21, 'Huic imperat, quas possit', to the end." Many good suggestions as to the teaching of Cæsar were given and much appreciated.

The Section then listened with great pleasure to a most interesting paper on "A Visit to the Classical Association of England," by Professor J. C. Robertson.

In his paper on "A Traveller's Notes on Greece," Principal Maurice Hutton described in his own happy manner the customs and character of the people of Modern Greece. This delightful paper concluded the programme for the year.

WILLIAM C. MICHELL, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

TORONTO, APRIL 18TH.

Registration of members began at 9.30 a.m. on the above date. At 10.15 the President, Mr. J. Elliott, called the meeting to order.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and approved.

The President then gave his address, which was listened to with interest.

Mr. Crasweller discussed "General Aspects of Recent Examinations." Among other things he noted that fewer easy questions and more questions demanding independent and original thinking are on the examination papers. Mr. A. M. Robertson then gave in detail the marking of the Faculty trigonometry for 1910, and Mr. T. A. Kirkconnell the Geometry paper for 1910. Further discussion was entered into by Messrs. H. S. Robertson, Crasweller, and Overholt.

Prof. W. J. Patterson then presented his paper on "The Place of Arithmetic on the High School Curriculum."

Moved by Mr. J. T. Crawford, seconded by Mr. C. L. Crasweller, that in the opinion of this Section Arithmetic should be placed on the Normal Entrance and Matriculation Course as a Middle School subject. Carried.

On motion of Mr. J. T. Crawford and Mr. R. Wightman, T. Kennedy was elected the representative of this Section on the College and High School Section. The meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

After further registration of members, the President called the meeting to order at 10.15 a.m. The first order of business was the election of officers, which resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary President</i>	- - -	J. A. Houston, M.A.
<i>President</i>	- - - - -	Prof. W. J. Patterson, M.A.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - - - -	R. Wightman, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- - -	A. M. Overholt, B.A.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	W. L. Sprung, A. M. Robertson, G. W. Keith, W. W. Rutherford, T. Kennedy.

Prof. Fields introduced the communication from the Mathematical Association, London, England.

Moved by Mr. R. A. Gray, seconded by W. W. Rutherford, that we form a branch of the afore-mentioned Association and that this Section request the Association to accept as members the President and Secretary of this section from year to year. Carried.

Inspector J. A. Houston then gave his paper on "Notes on Mathematics in our Secondary Schools."

After discussion by Messrs. Martin, Patterson, Davison, and others, it was moved by Mr. C. L. Crassweller, seconded by Mr. J. H. Davidson, that a hearty vote of thanks be tendered to Mr. Houston for his very helpful paper, and also that extra copies of it be forwarded to the Mathematical masters of the Province. Carried.

Prof. Hogg then outlined his paper on "Gas Pressure." but owing to lack of time he was unable to deal with the subject at all in detail.

The meeting adjourned.

T. KENNEDY, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH.

This Section held its fifth Annual Meeting in Room 57, University College, on Tuesday, April 18, 1911. The chair was occupied by the President, Professor Edward Kylie. Upon motion the minutes, as printed in the Proceedings, were taken as read. A Nominating Committee, consisting of the President, Vice-President and Secretary, was appointed.

Professor W. L. Grant, of Queen's University, read an extremely interesting and instructive paper on "The Colonial Policy of Chatham." This paper will be printed in the October number of *Queen's Quarterly* and Professor Grant will arrange to have off-prints sent to the members of the Section.

An interesting discussion on the present requirements in history in the High Schools followed Professor Grant's address. Professor Wrong expressed the opinion that it would be of greater benefit for the pupil to study a few important questions thoroughly than to attempt to cover too large a period. A real view of a man like Chatham and his problems was better than a glance at twenty statesmen. Mr. G. W. Jones observed that under the present regulations there was no possibility of conducting a detailed study of any period or statesman. Mr. Horton doubted if the majority of High School pupils were of sufficient maturity to undertake and appreciate a detailed study. This view was endorsed by Miss Guest. Mr. Malcolm thought that under the present conditions the teachers of history were doing all that could be expected of them in making the course of benefit to the pupils. Professor Bell desired to see some attempt made, if at all possible, to teach historical method. Professor Kylie thought that a reduction in the amount of work would bring about a better condition.

Mr. W. G. Anderson was unable to be present, so his paper on "Literature in the Lower School," was read by Mr. Horton. The paper dealt with the needs of Lower School pupils in English literature, the best means of meeting those needs and the best methods to use. Prose literature should predominate in the Lower School curriculum, the short story could be prescribed for the first year, and the novel for the second. Shakespeare should not be attempted, though possibly some work might be done with the prose dramas of Goldsmith and Sheridan. For poetry the ballad

would make an excellent starting point. The epic would follow naturally and the study of poetic drama would thus be properly approached. The study of Lower School literature should be mainly extensive in character, interspersed, however, with spells of intensive work. Hence generous provision should be made for Lower School classes and much reading, both at home and in school required.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

The meeting opened with the President, Professor Kylie in the chair. The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	Mr. C. W. Horton.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Professor W. L. Grant.
<i>Sec.-Treas.</i>	- - - - -	A. W. Baird, Renfrew.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	Professor G. S. Stevenson.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	Misses Guest and L. Spence; Messrs. Malcolm, Keeler, Forfar, G. M. Jones.

Professor Stevenson, of University College, gave a delightful and comprehensive paper on Charles Lamb, which was greatly appreciated by the Section. Lamb's personal appearance was described by reference to contemporary sources: his powers of literary criticism and appreciation were shown by extracts from his letters; charming and characteristic anecdotes were given; and Lamb's domestic life and devotion to his sister feelingly described.

Dr. Adam Shortt, of the Civil Service Commission, gave an interesting and thoughtful address, dealing with a comparison of the governments of the United States and Canada. The speaker confined his remarks to the actual working of the two systems of government. Both governments were examples of democracy. The American definition of democracy as being government of, by and for the people was examined. There had never been such a thing as government by the people, the actual condition being government by toleration with an opportunity for the people to express themselves. In reality government is by a small minority with the element of leadership very conspicuous. The question of government for the people was shown to be always an uncertain one.

The Canadian system was considered to be, on the whole, much

better, because of certain historical conditions. The American system took shape earlier with the result that the executive and legislative powers were almost entirely separated. The Canadian system is justified by the concentration of legislative responsibility in the cabinet or executive. In the United States, legislation, no matter how important, is in the hands of individual members, who are not by any means sure of the support of their own party. In Canada the executive is responsible for all legislation, no matter by whom introduced, though as a rule all important legislation is introduced by the government. This responsibility is made very real, as an adverse vote means the resignation of the government.

Both systems tend to place autocratic power in the hands of one person, in Canada the Premier, in the United States the Speaker. There is this difference, however. The Premier has to justify himself from day to day or else lose the support of the majority and thus cease to be Premier. If the Speaker abuses his power, the rules which make him an autocrat have to be amended in order to right matters.

The American system was considered clumsy, rigid and round-about, while that of Canada is characterized by flexibility, adaptability, efficiency and the ever present possibility of changing it to meet the actual exigencies of government.

Mr. L. J. Pettit read a paper introducing a discussion on the Text-Books in History. He pointed out the defects and merits of the authorized texts, criticizing most adversely the present High School Ancient History. This text-book was characterized as being merely a compendium of nearly *all* the facts of ancient history and utterly devoid of interest. This criticism was concurred in by practically all the teachers of history present. The opinion was expressed generally that there is at present too much history on the curriculum.

The following resolution was then passed unanimously:

That this Association urge the importance of restoring the Entrance Examination in History, and of prescribing for the Junior Matriculation and Normal School Entrance examinations shorter periods and requiring more intensive study in connection with British, Canadian and Ancient History.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

President - - - - Wm. Ward, B.A., Toronto.
Vice-President - - - S. B. Hatch, Toronto.
Secy.-Treas. - - - J. E. Hammond, Meaford.
Councillors - - - Miss Anderson, Miss Richardson; Mr.
 Page, Mr. A. E. Attwood, Ottawa;
 Mr. C. E. Jamieson, St. Catharines;
 Mr. D. M. Walker, Niagara Falls.
Representative to General Executive—Mr. Wm. Ward.

APRIL 18TH.

The Commercial Section O. E. A. met on the above date in Room 19 of Toronto University, Main Building, with the President, Mr. C. E. Jamieson, of St. Catharines in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and adopted.

On motion, the Secretary was appointed Press Reporter.

On motion, the President, Secretary, and Mr. A. E. Attwood were made a Nominating Committee, to report on following morning.

The President then gave a paper, whose outline follows:

Attention was called to the slowness of the growth of the Commercial Section, as compared with that of the General Association. It was high time that the Commercial teachers of the province should wake up to the fact of the importance of their department. The great majority of pupils leave school, either from the fourth class in the public school or the first and second forms of the High Schools, and the Industrial and Commercial departments were for the benefit of this vast number.

He reviewed the great change that was coming over Commercial education in this country, and appealed to the Commercial teachers to encourage their pupils to take advanced work in Accountancy, and fit themselves for the more responsible and more remunerative positions.

He next drew attention to the report on Education for Industrial Purposes just issued by Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, and remarked particularly on the necessity of actual business experience for the successful commercial teacher, and the need of proper provision for the training of Commercial Specialists. In conclusion, Mr. Jamieson urged upon the Commercial

teachers the advisability of being well-read in the literature of their profession, of regular attendance at the meetings of the Section, and of co-operation with other teachers and with office and factory managers.

Following the President, Mr. F. F. Wright, of St. Catharines, gave a paper on "Rapid Calculation or Short Cuts in Figures, their Use and Abuse."

Mr. Wright did not follow the usual plan of reading a paper on his subject, but using the audience as a class, taught a lesson, or, rather, exemplified the teaching of several lessons.

Great stress was laid upon "Accuracy." He deplored the fact that examiners frequently allowed as much as two-thirds of the total mark for a question when the answer was far from correct. When students leave school for business and get into any large mercantile, banking or other financial institutions, they soon find that slipshod methods will not do. No answer is worth a pinhead unless it is absolutely correct. The curricula of all our schools allow the examiners too much scope, and the teachers, in order to get their classes over all the work prescribed, spend too much time on theoretical problems that are seldom met with other than in the schoolroom. Because of the time thus spent the students do not get sufficient drill in the simple rules, so that they can use them rapidly and correctly on the extending of invoices, deducting of discounts, finding interest and such work as business men find use for day after day. The ground-work of rapid calculation is rapid addition, and yet in this essential our young people are sadly deficient. There are business men who deem it necessary to test the different applicants for junior positions in their office on this simple rule, and many a boy and girl falls below the standard required. Mr. Wright's method of training to add rapidly as exemplified in the lesson brought out several new features that were simple, easy and practical. They were new to many who have for years been teaching this old subject, and if put more generally into practice, better results should certainly be attained. Another special feature of the lesson was the quick and easy method shown of obtaining practically all the discounts in common use from four simple standards or bases, 10 per cent., 25 per cent., 50 per cent. and 100 per cent. The same principle proved equally good for use in extending in-

voices or doing any work of that nature. Sales clerks and invoice clerks should certainly become proficient in it.

This concluded the first morning session.

MARCH 19TH.

The Commercial Section spent the morning, till 10.30. with the Manual Arts Section and were treated to two excellent addresses, one by Mr. Kidd, of Riverdale High School, Toronto, and the other by Miss A. Powell, of Toronto Normal School.

Returning to Room 19, the Commercial Section listened with great interest to a very carefully prepared address by Mr. Wm. Ward, B.A., of Toronto, on "Cost Accounting."

Advantage was taken of the blackboard to illustrate, by skeleton accounts, the method followed by the present day accountant in dealing with cost accounting, with special illustrations taken from such a complicated business as the manufacture of confectionery. In the conclusion of the address, which was of special merit, numerous questions were asked and carefully answered.

It was a specially noticeable feature of the meetings this year that the attendance was small, out of all proportion to that of the other Sections and the number of Commercial teachers in the province. A great effort will be made by the officers during 1911 to awake a more active interest in the meetings.

It was very disappointing that a paper on "English for Commercial Pupils." by Geo. M. Jones, of Toronto, was crowded out of the programme.

Members Registered—A. E. Attwood, Toronto; W. E. Evans, Galt; S. B. Hatch, Toronto; J. E. Hammond, Meaford; C. E. Jamieson, St. Catharines; D. M. Walker, Niagara Falls; Wm. Ward, B.A., Toronto.

MINUTES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

The Principals met in West Hall, at 10 a.m., Tuesday, April 18th, President S. Martin in the chair.

The Minutes of the last annual meeting were adopted.

The President read a paper on "Examining Boards, Associated with Secondary Education."

Messrs. Burt and Mayberry, members of the Committee appointed to watch changes in School Laws and Regulations, addressed the Section.

It was moved by Mr. Coombs, seconded by Mr. Snider, that a committee consisting of Messrs. Burt, Mayberry, Steele, McDougall, Carefoot, and the mover and seconder be appointed to formulate recommendations concerning the changes recently made or about to be made in the High School Regulations, and to report to the Principals' Section for their information, Wednesday at 1.30 p.m. Carried.

Messrs. Sliter and Levan then delivered addresses on the Relation of Technical and Industrial Education to the High Schools.

The election of officers was then proceeded with, resulting as follows:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	I. M. Levan, Woodstock.
<i>Sec.-Treas.</i>	- - - - -	J. T. Lillie, Orillia.
<i>Committee</i>	- - - - -	Jas. Davison, A. H. McDougall, E. E. Snider.

The Section resumed at 1.30 p.m. on Wednesday.

On motion of Mr. Coombs, seconded by Mr. McCutcheon, it was unanimously resolved to send out from this Principals' Section to all High School Staffs and to others closely connected with Secondary Education an appeal for financial assistance for a much respected High School Principal, in need of such, because of his own very serious illness, and of other long-continued illness in his family.

The Committee appointed on Tuesday, reported, and after considerable discussion their report was adopted as follows:

1. That we view with satisfaction the substitution of an examination at the end of the Lower School work in lieu of the Approved School system.

2. That in the readjustment of subjects we recommend that there be a test in Writing, not on a special paper, but on one or more of the other school papers.

3. That we recommend that there be no examination in Oral Reading.

4. That we recommend that British and Canadian History be placed on the examination at the end of the Lower School work, and removed from the examination at the end of the Middle School course.

5. That in view of the requirements of Public School Teachers we recommend that Arithmetic and English Grammar be included in the Middle School Examinations.

The Principals' Section then met in conjunction with the College and High School Section, with Mr. S. Martin in the chair.

Mr. R. A. Gray introduced the subject, "Apportionment of time in School Programme and of marks on the examinations for Matriculation and for Teachers."

In his handling of the subject, he gave a good deal of attention to the question of a proper scale of marks, according to subjects, for Pass and Honour Matriculation.

The discussion of the subject was continued by Messrs. Gundry, Husband and McCutcheon. Mr. Bell contributed to the discussion by a paper which was read, in Mr. Bell's absence, by the Secretary.

A motion was adopted recommending a suitable scale of marks for the matriculation examinations. The United Sections declared in favour of the restoration of Arithmetic and Grammar as examination subjects at the end of Middle School Courses.

The subject of "School Examinations: how Best to Conduct Them." was introduced by the Secretary of the Principals' Section, after which an adjournment for the year was made.

J. T. LILLIE, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1911.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto.

The meeting was called to order at 10.15 a.m., Mr. William Linton, President, in the chair.

The President read 1 Cor. xiii: 1-13, and led in prayer.

Mr. R. M. Spiers was elected Minute Secretary.

As the minutes of last year's meetings had been printed in the Annual Report of the Proceedings, they were taken as read and adopted.

The following communications were presented:

1. From the following Teachers' Institutes contributing to the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association:—

Brant	\$2 00	Peterboro	\$2 00
Essex	2 00	Stormont and Cornwall	2 00
Glengarry	2 00	Toronto	10 00
Gray, (W.)	2 00	Victoria (E.)	2 00
Huron (E.)	2 00	Waterloo	2 00
Huron, (W.)	2 00	Welland	5 00
Kingston	2 00	Wellington (S.)	4 00
Leeds, (W.)	2 00	Wentworth	4 00
Lincoln	5 00	Windsor and Walker-	
Nipissing	2 00	ville	2 00
Ottawa	4 00		
Oxford	2 00	Total	\$64 00
Perth	2 00		

2. From the Minister of Education and officials of the Education Department *re*:

The Work of this Department for 1910-1911.

3. From County Institutes, *re*:

The Resolutions of this Department (1910).

4. From the officers of the Ontario Educational Association and its Departments and Sections *re*:

The Work of this Department for 1910-1911.

5. From the Daughters of the Empire *re*:

British Inter-Imperial School Correspondence.

6. From Toronto Teachers' Association *re*:

The Instituting of a "Science of Education" course in the University, corresponding to the present courses in Science, Classics, Moderns, etc.

7. From York County Principals *re*:

The Appointing of Mr. Beale as a Lecturer on Social Purity.

8. From South Wellington Teachers' Institute:

Criticizing the Working of the P.S. Department of the O.E.A.

These communications were received and referred to the proper committees.

Secretary Fraser then presented his seventh annual report.

The report was received and adopted.

Treasurer J. T. Curtis then presented his report for the year as follows:—

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand from 1909-10	\$76 60
Members Fees, including General Association Fees	199 50
Receipts from Local Institutes	64 00
	<hr/>
Total Receipts	\$ 340 10

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid Members' Fees to General Association	\$101 00
Paid Railway Agent	42 75
Paid Secretary Fraser	75 00
Paid Treasurer Curtis	20 00
Paid Other Expenses	5 65
	<hr/>
Total Disbursements	\$244 40
Balance on hand	95 70

The report was received and referred to the auditors.

Vice-President J. W. Rogers, M.A., then presented the Report of the Legislation Committee, which was received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

In reporting on the work of the New Curriculum Committee, Secretary Fraser said:—The services of the committee had been offered to the Minister of Education, who said he would be pleased to avail himself of the help, but the matter had been referred to the Advisory Council and until they made a report, nothing could be done. The difficulty of meeting for consultation was also referred to.

Mr. E. T. Young, Secretary of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, then addressed the meeting, presenting an account of the work of the Alliance for the past year, and its claims to the recognition and support of the teachers of the Province.

The following notices of motion were then presented:—

1. By Mr. T. A. Reid:—Alternation proposals *re* superannuation of teachers.

2. By Mr. R. A. Ward:—That the names of the Public and Separate School representatives on the Advisory Council be added to our Committee on the New Curriculum.

Secretary Fraser then presented a report on the Salary Outlook in Rural and Urban Schools. See page 234.

It was moved by Mr. Morris and seconded by Mr. J. D. Denny that our Secretary be thanked for his great work in preparing such a comprehensive report and that the report be printed in our Minutes. Carried.

The President named the following as a Committee on Resolutions:—J. W. Rogers, Jas. D. Denny, Chas. G. Fraser, J. E. Carmichael, Geo. Wilson, J. T. Curtis, Clarence Long and Wm. Linton.

The meeting then adjourned, 12.05.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.30; President Linton in the chair.

Mr. Henry Ward then presented the subject of Supplementary Reading and Supplementary Readers, dealing with the purpose of this work and how it could be advantageously taken up in our Schools. He dwelt on the importance of proper selection of works for the children to read and suggested a co-operation of the teachers to recommend a list of books which would be suitable for each class in our Schools.

Mr. Douglas complained that the books on the suggested list were not available for pupils' use. Mr. D. Nairn suggested some books which he had found useful and suitable. Mr. W. F. Moore told of how he used the grant which his trustees give every year for the extension of the School Library. Mr. H. A. Beaton mentioned Miss Bee Bee's Primary Reader as particularly interesting for First Book Classes. Mr. Fraser suggested that as supplementary reading suitable for the junior classes was scarce, it should be the duty of the teachers to prepare such work, selecting the subjects and presenting the matter in language that would be in keeping with the vocabulary of the child. If we could supply interesting reading we would have not only occupation, profitable occupation, but have a means of developing habits of industry and independent research.

It was moved by Mr. Fraser and seconded by Mr. Beaton, that Mr. Moore be the convener of a committee to be named by the President of this Department to prepare a list of books suitable for each of the classes in our schools. Carried.

The meeting adjourned at 3.30.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, APRIL 19TH.

Meeting called to order at 9.20; President Linton in the chair. Secretary Fraser read Psalm xxiii. and led in prayer.

The minutes of Tuesday's sessions were read and confirmed.

Dr. Abbott reported regarding the Strathcona Trust and invited correspondence regarding the summer sessions at the University.

Mr. T. A. Reid introduced the motion of which he gave notice on Tuesday:—

That whereas the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association at its meeting in 1908, unanimously adopted a resolution, the main principle of which recognized the claims of teachers of long standing to special consideration in any scheme of superannuation that might be devised for the teachers of the Province; and this resolution has been strongly endorsed by the local teachers' institutes of this Province;

Whereas the Superannuation Scheme proposed by the Ontario Educational Association now under consideration by the Department of Education does not make provision for teachers of long service, this Department urges that all teachers having ten years' experience in the Province may become contributors to the present superannuation fund and come within the scope of its benefits on the same terms and conditions as the present contributors, that is, by a present worth payment of the past annual payments, covering their full term of service. That this privilege be extended for the period of two years; and that it shall be lawful for any School Board to make the necessary payment for any teacher in its service;

This Department re-affirms its position on the principle of the resolution and herewith begs to offer alternation propositions for the consideration of the Department of Education, the Government and the Legislature, set forth after the original resolution, which is as follows:—

1. That in view of the fact that for a moderate annual expenditure of about \$60,000 per year for the next 15 years, a straight pension of \$200 could be given to each Public School Teacher of the Province retiring at the age of 60 years, the consideration of straight pensions, following the Nova Scotia plan, which has been adopted recently, be commended to the Government and the Legislature;

2. That in any new superannuation scheme devised for the general teaching body of the Province and those who may hereafter enter the profession, the strong claims on the Province for special consideration of those who have served for years in the days of poorer salaries be fully recognized.

The following took part in the discussion:—A. A. Jordan, E. T. Young, Robt. Alexander, R. A. Ward, Mr. Scott (Preston).

It was moved in amendment by D. Young and seconded by R. A. Ward that this resolution on Superannuation be sent to the special committee on superannuation merely as information or suggestion. Carried.

Mr. R. A. Ward moved, and R. F. Downey seconded, That the names of the Public and Separate School representatives on the Advisory Council and one Primary Teacher be added to the committee on the New Curriculum. Carried.

Mr. J. W. Rogers, suggested that the Executive Committee of the P. S. Department of the O. E. A. should arrange some time in next year's programme for the Ontario Teachers' Alliance.

On the suggestion of Mr. R. A. Ward, a member of the South Wellington Teachers' Institute was placed on the Resolution Committee seeing that their Convention had criticized this Department of the O. E. A. adversely.

Mr. R. A. Ward suggested that if Superannuation be discussed at our meetings it should be announced on the programme.

Mr. Fraser gave notice of motion *re* the formation of a Good Manners Circle in each class.

Vice-President Rogers then took the chair and expressed his appreciation of the honor which had been conferred upon him by this Department by electing him to the Vice-Presidency of one of the most important and aggressive branches of the Ontario Educational Association.

President William Linton then delivered his address "A Retrospect." See page 229.

It was moved by R. F. Downey, and seconded by H. A. Beaton, That a hearty vote of thanks be tendered to Mr. Linton for his address and that he be requested to have it printed in the Report of the proceedings of this year's meetings. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore and seconded by Mr. D. Nairn, That a vote of thanks be tendered to Secretary Fraser,

the Chairman of the Banquet Committee, for his splendid arrangements for last night's banquet in Convocation Hall. Carried.

The following officers were then elected:

<i>President</i>	- - - -	Joseph Whyte Rogers, M.A., Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - - -	J. T. Curtis, Seaforth.
<i>Director</i>	- - - -	Wm. Linton, Galt.
<i>Secretary</i>	- - - -	Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.
<i>Treasurer</i>	- - - -	W. Clare Marriott, Galt.
<i>Auditors</i>	- - - -	H. A. Beaton, Walkerville. R. M. Spiers, Toronto.

The meeting adjourned at 11.40.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Meeting called to order at 2 o'clock.

President Linton in the chair.

Mr. Fraser introduced the subject, "The Essential and the Non-essential in a Good School Curriculum." He showed: That the state (1) as a matter of protection against ignorant uneducated citizens and (2) as a matter of profit from trained, intelligent citizens, had assumed the responsibility for the education of every child; that in accordance with the system of specialization of the individual of this age, the teachers were engaged as specialists in child-training to assist the parents and advise the state as to the best means and methods of accomplishing this work; that for the proper training of the child we must bear in mind its three-fold nature—the physical, intellectual and spiritual—and make provision for the education of each; that each higher nature, while depending upon the lower for support and avenues of action, in turn dominates and directs the lower; that while the intellectual nature controls the physical, it is in turn dominated by the spiritual ideals; that each higher nature is of far more importance than the lower and demands that provision be made for its education.

We are now recognizing that in the past our system of education has been making provision only for the intellectual; and now we were making a mad rush to remedy this defect in part by paying great attention to the physical, but still neglecting to make provision for the training of that nature which in importance transcends the physical and the intellectual in the same ratio as eternity surpasses time, in importance. But we should make pro-

vision for the creation of moral and spiritual ideals which will make for the fulfilling of the chief end of man, which is to glorify God and enjoy him forever. To this, no other agency can compare with the Bible, revealing to man the highest ideals, the noblest examples, the greatest joys, the purest thoughts and the highest hopes. Other subjects may be valuable but not one of them is essential. For the proper training of our boys and girls there is only one essential, and that essential is the one subject excluded from our curriculum. The non-essential is then overloading the course while the essential is excluded.

He moved, seconded by Mr. McDonald, That in the opinion of the Public School Department of the O. E. A. the Bible should be a text-book in the Public School.

Mr. Nairn objected to this method of teaching morals. He did not believe in formal teaching of morals. He did not believe that the School teachers should be held to account for the moral status of our school children. He thought the homes are not co-operating as they should.

Mr. MacDonald thought the Bible the most sublime book, the best book for teaching moral lessons, and it was necessary at the present time.

Mr. Geo. A. Cole thought we were free now to use the Bible in teaching morals. He thought a manual on ethics should be in use in every school.

Mr. Downey took exception to the title of the subject unless the Bible is considered the Essential in a school curriculum. What is essential is to develop the child physically, intellectually and morally. He was opposed to having the Bible made a text-book. The teacher must have the moral principles of the Bible ingrained in him in order to teach morals.

Mr. Douglas spoke of the suddenness of dropping on us this discussion not foreshadowed by the programme. This is too far-reaching in its significance to decide this question now. We should not send on as resolutions undigested material apt to be reversed the following year.

It was moved by A. E. Attwood and seconded by David Young, That the motion of Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, to make the Bible a text-book for use in the schools, be laid on the table. Carried.

Mr. R. A. Ward. presented the auditors' report and moved its adoption. It was seconded by Mr. G. A. Cole. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY MORNING, APRIL 20TH, 1911.

Meeting called to order at 9.20.

President Linton in the chair.

Mr. Carmichael read Psalm xix. and led in prayer.

The minutes of Wednesday's meetings were read and adopted.

It was moved by Chas. G. Fraser, according to notice, and seconded to R. M. Speirs, that in the opinion of this Department the formation of "A Good Manners Circle" in each class or school would be a great advantage. Carried.

Mr. T. A. Reid spoke on Superannuation.

Mr. J. W. Rogers, the Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, then presented the report, which was adopted as amended. See page 41.

It was moved by R. T. Downey and seconded by J. W. Plewes, That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer be further improved, so that in the matter of word recognition, it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics. Carried.

It was moved by J. W. Plewes and seconded by H. A. Beaton, that in the case of spelling, if a paper be set in the subject, that no marks be deducted for mistakes in spelling in the other subjects. Carried.

The President was instructed to appoint a committee of three to scrutinize the new Regulations *re* Entrance and report a year hence. He appointed Principals Denny, Downey and Marriott.

It was moved by Mr. Fraser and seconded by Mr. Denny, that the thanks of this Department of the O.E.A. be conveyed to Mr. P. H. Boyer, M.P.P., Ridgetown, for his service to us in securing legislation which makes the holidays in rural schools correspond with those in urban schools.

It was carried unanimously: That we express our appreciation of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Honourable R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., the Minister of Education, his worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, and the other officials of his Department, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our Association.

The usual grants were passed.

Three dollars were granted to those who had arranged the hall for the meeting.

The meeting adjourned at 12.15 p.m.

CHAS. G. FRASER, *Secretary*.

*REPORT—LEGISLATION COMMITTEE, PUBLIC
SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.*

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of the Public School Department, Ontario Educational Association:—

Your Legislation Committee, composed of the officers of this Department of the O. E. A., with power to add to their number, takes pleasure in presenting its report on the resolutions passed by you at your meeting in 1910.

As on former occasions, the Resolutions were prepared at the close of last year's meeting and appeared in the following issue of the *Canadian Teacher*. Five thousand reprints were secured which were sent to the various Teachers' Institutes of the Province. This year we had a number of copies of the resolutions dressed in a neat cover, which, we think, added much to the appearance of your booklet. Copies of these were sent to the Minister of Education and his special advisors, as well as to the members of the Government and of the Legislature.

We have had three formal interviews with the Minister of Education. On each occasion we had the honor of having the Deputy Minister present, and on the first and second occasions, the Superintendent of Education and the General Editor of Text-books were also present. The Minister recognizes the importance of the work of his Department and he has to fill a difficult position when he has to listen to much advice, which is perhaps quite opposed. We are pleased to say he has afforded us every opportunity to approach him and has listened with much interest to the points we have urged. We believe he is actuated by one supreme desire, and that is, to advance the interests of Education in Ontario. In this he is ably supported by his worthy Deputy, Doctor Colquhoun. So desirous was the Department to have your officers present, that it paid the railway expenses of those who live out of the city, to enable them to join in the consultation.

Copies of these resolutions are in your hands and we shall make report according to the arrangement in the booklet.

I. THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

Re 1.—The assistance of our committee on the Proposed Syllabus, was offered to the Minister of Education. He said he would

be pleased to avail himself of the help, but the matter had been referred to the Advisory Council and until it made a report, he would not care to act.

Re 2.—The Minister promised that the course of study would be submitted to our department before it was finally adopted. The Superintendent of Education said that in all probability a course of study, which was not so much in detail, would be decided on; but a set of teachers' manuals would be prepared, which would embody the suggestions contained in the curriculum which had been presented by the Committee of the O.E.A.

Re 3.—The Minister said he recognized that the names suggested for the classes conformed to the former phraseology of the Department.

Re 4.—The Minister said the matter of preparing a course of study was a task requiring much time and great care and the cry for new text-books had been very urgent and had to have immediate attention.

II. PUBLIC SCHOOL TEXT-BOOKS.

Re 1.—The Minister said he recognized the desirability of allowing all to compete for the preparation of the text-books, but the difficulties in the way were so great that they seemed almost insurmountable.

Re 2.—The Minister said the request had been partly arranged for in the preparation and authorization of a Grammar and a Composition book.

Re 3.—The Minister said the Department had tried to prepare a good set of readers. It was a most difficult matter to suit everybody. The numbering of the lines would require the preparation of a new set of plates. The advantage would be slight, and if the change were made it would be difficult to preserve or protect the plates.

The preparation of a Phonic Primer was urged and the Minister seemed to think the matter was not impossible. Regarding the "Speller" no promise was made.

III. THE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION.

The Minister said the most of what was asked for had been granted or retained. The Superintendent of Education took the strongest opposition to the placing of the names of the examiners

in the examination papers, urging that the life of such an individual would not be worth living.

The special regulations of 1910, had emphasized the adhering to the regulations regarding the Entrance Examination as issued by the Department of Education.

IV. TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

Re 1.—The Minister admitted that it would be the proper thing to grant no certificates to any one under 21 years of age, but urged that the present, when there was such a scarcity of teachers, would not be an opportune time to make this change. The time would come when this could and would be arranged for.

Re 2.—The Minister urged that temporary certificates were now granted only in cases where evidence was shown that after adequate advertising, offering a salary which was in keeping with the assessment of the School section, no applications had been received.

Re 4.—The Minister said that the Department was endeavoring to give proper recognition for successful experience, as well as certificate, in deciding the requirements for filling various positions.

Re 5.—The Minister said the matter of Inspectors' Certificates was still under consideration. The matter had been submitted to the Advisory Council.

V. THE ADVISORY COUNCIL.

The Superintendent seemed quite opposed to the suggested changes regarding the Advisory Council in the division of the Province into electoral districts and to the increase in the number and powers of Public School representatives.

Re 3.—The Minister said the preparation of a Hand-book or Directory of the Schools of the Province was under way under the direction of the Secretary of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance.

VI. DEPARTMENTAL REGULATIONS.

Re 3.—The Minister said the Statutes of the Province had been changed at the last session of the Legislature so as to make the School holidays in rural sections correspond with those in urban sections.

Re 4.—We were assured that the new regulations will omit the clause requiring the holding of meetings of Teachers' Institutes on a Saturday.

Re 5.—The Minister said the matter of making the School year end with the 30th of June was under consideration. There were many things to be considered, but he was quite satisfied the change would ultimately be made.

Re 6.—The Minister thought the regulation regarding supplementary Reading was intended to encourage independent work and side reading and so should not be changed.

Re 7 and 8.—The Minister thought the experiment with the special grants had not been successful. The dissatisfaction had been so great that it had to be changed. The purpose of these grants was to induce the trustees to increase the salary and retain the services of their teachers. This would best be attained by giving the grant to the Trustee Boards.

VII. SUPERANNUATION OF TEACHERS.

The Minister said the matter of Superannuation was still before the Government and was requiring very much careful thought.

VIII. AN ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL GAZETTE.

The Minister seemed to favor the thought of an Educational Gazette for the Province and in time it will likely be arranged for.

REPORT OF RESOLUTION COMMITTEE, AS AMENDED

RESOLUTIONS.

I. *Expressions of Appreciation.*

1. That we express our appreciation of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Honorable R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., the Minister of Education, his worthy Deputy, Dr Colquhoun, and the other officials of his Department, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our Association.

2. That the thanks of this department of the O.E.A. be conveyed to Mr. P. H. Boyer, M.P.P., Ridgetown, for his service to us in securing legislation which makes the holidays in rural schools correspond with those in urban schools.

II. *The Public School Curriculum.*

1. That it would be in the best interests of elementary education in the Province for the Education Department to issue a detailed syllabus of work for each of the Junior and Senior divisions of Forms I.—IV., such syllabus to be suggestive only; that the "Proposed Syllabus" as amended, be made the basis of such detailed syllabus; that the following be a committee of Public and Separate School teachers to carry on the work of further correlation:—Principals H. Ward, Denny, Beaton, D. Young, Fraser, and Miss Isabelle Richardson, and the Public and Separate School Representatives on the Advisory Council; and that Inspectors Chapman, Mills and Stevens be asked to co-operate with this committee.

2. That it is urgently desirable that the proposed course of study for Public Schools should be very materially lightened.

3. That the number of classes in the Public School Programme of Studies remain as at present, *i.e.*, Form I., Form II., Form III., and Form IV., with their sub-divisions into Junior and Senior classes, which may be taken together or separately with parallel work, or otherwise, as the local authorities may see fit.

4. That the work in each of the Junior and Senior forms of the Public Schools be clearly defined; and that text-books should then be prepared, or selected, on the basis of the work as thus defined, not in the opposite order.

5. That a committee be appointed to consider the question of Supplementary Reading and to suggest a list of books suitable for supplementary reading for each of the eight classes of our Public Schools.

6. That the formation of each class in our Public Schools into a "A Good Manners Circle" would be of great advantage.

III. *Public School Text-Books.*

1. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization of a new text-book on any subject, he should give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those, who

wish, may submit a book in type-written form if necessary; and that Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School text-books.

2. That the Second, Third and Fourth books of the new Series of Ontario Readers should each be divided into two parts and the selections in each part be suitably graded.

3. That an Index of the Titles of the lessons and another of the Authors be prepared for each Reader.

4. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

5. That the present Public School Speller is unsuited to the use of our Public Schools on account of (1) the large number of unfamiliar words selected, especially in the latter part of the book; (2) the unusual nature of the sentences, and (3) such spellings as "favour," "chequer," "cosey," etc.

6. That until such time as a simpler speller is prepared, one mark, instead of two, be deducted for each mis-spelled word on the Spelling paper at the Entrance Examination.

IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

1. That a *Provincial* Examination be held at the end of Form IV., Senior. of the Public School Course, and pupils who pass this examination shall be entitled to attend any High School, Collegiate Institute, or Continuation School in the Province.

2. That papers be set on the following subjects of the course—Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Grammar, Composition, Literature, and Geography; and that no marks shall be deducted for mistakes in spelling, except in the Spelling paper.

3. That the result of this examination be considered in connection with the Teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil in each subject.

4. That the standard required for passing be 40 per cent. on each subject and 60 per cent. on the total.

5. That at least one-half of the marks in Literature be assigned on prescribed work; that at least one-fourth of the marks in Arithmetic be on mechanical work in the four simple rules; and that there be two papers in Arithmetic, (1) mechanical work, (2). practical problems.

6. That a detailed curriculum of the work in these subjects be drawn up for the Province, and that local authorities be allowed the privilege of extending this course by including certain optional subjects in accordance with a curriculum which shall be supplied.

7. That the names of the examiners shall appear on the examination papers as formerly.

8. That there be a Local Board of Examiners for each inspectorate, to carry out the work of the Examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work, but Public School representatives shall predominate.

9. That these Local Boards of Examiners be not invested with such unlimited powers as the Local Entrance Boards at present have, but that all *material* deviations from this plan receive the sanction of the Education Department.

V. Teachers' Certificates.

1. That no certificate to teach, except as an assistant, be granted to any person under 21 years of age.

2. That, as we are of the opinion that there is only an occasional vacancy in the Public Schools of Ontario for which a legally-qualified teacher cannot be obtained, providing an adequate salary is offered, no permit to teach should be granted, except in *absolutely unavoidable cases*, such as are provided for in the forms which the Education Department has prepared for this purpose.

3. That the Minister of Education be respectfully requested to replace Arithmetic and Grammar on the list of subjects for Teachers' Departmental Examinations, in July, believing it to be in the best interests of Education.

4. That the matter of certificate should not be the only point to be considered in deciding what teachers shall be qualified to take the position of teacher or principal, of any Public School.

5. That the requirements for a Public School Inspector's certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a first-class Professional Certificate of qualification;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in Public Schools, covering all grades of Public School work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a Degree in Pedagogy in any recognized Canadian University.

6. That the question of the qualifications necessary for a Public School Inspector's Certificate be submitted to the Advisory Council for consideration and advice.

7. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the Public Schools of this Province, were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the Provincial University, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

VI. *The Advisory Council.*

1. That the number of Public School Representatives on the Advisory Council be increased from four to seven, and that the Province be divided into seven electoral districts, each of which shall elect one representative on the Council.

2. That members of the Advisory Council should have the power to introduce the discussion of educational questions.

VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

1. That the Kindergarten work should be a part of the Public School course in every school where practicable, and to this end special inducements should be offered by the Education Department by way of grants, (1) on the initial cost of establishment and (2) on maintenance.

2. That where Manual Training and Domestic Science are introduced into a school attendance at these classes shall be made compulsory.

3. That the Education Department be requested to make the School year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance made out accordingly.

4. That the regulation regarding Supplementary Reading for Form IV., Senior, be amended to be:—The careful reading, by each pupil, of at least *two* suitable books selected by the principal from a list of Supplementary Reading in English Literature prepared by the Education Department.

5. That grants should be distributed to urban schools, on bases similar, in principle, to those now in operation, for the distribution of grants to rural schools.

6. That the grants to rural and urban schools based on the certificates of the teacher, be paid directly to the teacher on the order of the Inspector of Public Schools.

VIII. *Superannuation of Teachers.*

That the Government be asked to provide and support a system of superannuation for the teachers of the Province, and that any teacher who has taught twelve years or more in the Province shall be allowed to become a contributor to the present Superannuation Scheme and come within the scope of its benefits by a present payment of the present worth of the annual payments covering his term of services—this privilege to be extended for two years—and it shall be lawful for a School Board to make such payment for a teacher in its service.

IX. *An Ontario Educational Gazette.*

That we recommend to the consideration of the Honorable the Minister of Education, the publication of an Educational Gazette. to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all Departmental regulations, instructions and reports. and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

X. *General.*

1. That we express our disapproval of the cheap "picture shows" which are becoming such a rage at present, and that we call upon those who have the charge of children to do their utmost to eradicate, or limit, the evil.

2. That on account of the baneful influence of cigarettes on the boys and girls, and the great difficulties connected with the regulation of the sale and use of them, we favor a law which will prohibit the manufacture and sale of them; and respectfully ask the Dominion Parliament to enact a law which will make provision for this desired object.

3. That whereas the publication of supplements containing comic colored cuts is being introduced into our Canadian papers; and believing that the tone of these pictures is lowering and sometimes debasing, giving wrong views of life, and teaching disrespect for age, for parents and for those in authority; and believing that they are calculated to destroy, in the youth of our land, the taste for all that is noble, beautiful, and truly artistic; we, the members of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association, desire to express our strong disapproval of the publication of such matter in our Canadian press.

XI. *Contributions from the Institutes.*

We thank the Local Institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this Department of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope each Institute will celebrate this, the Jubilee Year, by contributing to this fund. Some institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in every Institute, beginning now by sending \$2, or more, to the Secretary of the P. S. Department of the O. E. A.

The work and aims of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association and of the Local Teachers' Institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each, in its own sphere—the municipality, the county or the province—is endeavoring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and by all legitimate means, 'to improve the conditions under which they labor; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central and the local associations.

MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT,

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH.

The Kindergarten Department of the O.E.A., met in the Senate Chamber of the Toronto University—the President, Miss Ada Baker, in the chair. The session opened with the singing of the Kindergartners' Hymn. The action of the Executive Committee of the Department, in arranging for another course of lectures by Miss Adair of Philadelphia, was fully justified by the large attendance at all the meetings and the increasing interest of the members. Owing to the late arrival of many of the audience, the President's address was omitted. This was very much regretted by those who had the privilege of listening to Miss Baker's inspiring address at the previous Convention. Miss Adair gave her lecture upon Programme making. In opening the subject she spoke of the diversity of opinion among different Kindergartners regarding the question of the construction of a programme. There are three distinct schools of workers representing as many clearly defined views: 1st, those who hold rigidly to tradition, and the advantage of having a fixed definite outline with much detail followed closely by all Kindergartners; 2nd, those whose views are quite opposed to the first, viewing any programme with abhorrence as an interference of the child's individuality. These would "follow the child" and arrange or alter the exercises to correlate the dominating interests of the moment. The third group holds that there must be a programme, with as much detail as necessary, but that it is not practical to follow too closely the steps of the past, in the face of advancing views in science and civilization. On the other hand, the child must be considered in the light of his whole development and not the whim of the moment. The exponents of these views would have fixed principles and laws of development as the governing form of a Programme, a method referable in every particular to Educational Principles, allowing sufficient elasticity in the order of exercises and subject matters. Miss Adair proceeded to elaborate the third point of view, which she believed had more vitality, allowing for necessary spontaneity of both child and teacher, also creating an incentive for teachers to meet together. See page 253.

An additional feature of interest to the Convention was the Jubilee Banquet held on Tuesday evening, in commemoration of the 50th anniversary of the formation of the Ontario Educational Association. The Kindergarten Department was well represented, and all were agreed in pronouncing it a most delightful evening.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, APRIL 19TH.

The session opened at 10 a.m., with the reading of the minutes of last year's meeting, followed by the Treasurer's report. Owing to the fact that there was no balance on hand from last year a special effort had been made to secure contributions from the different Kindergarten centres in the Province and the response was certainly gratifying.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

Receipts.

Toronto Froebel Society	\$ 25 00
Toronto Kindergarteners, Special Collection ..	18 55
Toronto Teachers' Association	5 00
Hamilton Kindergarteners	6 25
London Froebel Society	8 00
Ottawa Froebel Union	5 50
Brantford Froebel Society	5 00
Owen Sound	3 25
Stratford	2 00
St. Catharines	2 00
Peterboro'	2 00
Berlin	1 50
Chatham	1 50
Collingwood	1 50
St. Thomas	1 50
Kingston	1 25
Aylmer50
<hr/>	
	\$ 90 30

Disbursements.

Miss Adair's Fee for lectures and travelling expenses	75 00
Fee International Kindergarten Union	5 00
Rent of piano	4 00
Postage	4 00
Sundries	1 00
	<hr/>
	\$ 89 00

Balance \$1.30.

A recommendation from the executive committee was presented to the effect that the interests of Kindergarten work throughout the Province rendered it necessary to enlarge this Committee. and it has suggested that a Vice-President and six councillors be added to the Executive Committee. It was decided to discuss the matter on Thursday morning. Miss Adair then delivered her lecture upon "Closer Relationship between the Home, the Kindergarten and the First School Year." See page 241.

THURSDAY MORNING, APRIL 20TH.

The first items on the Programme were the reports of three important Committees: 1st, *re* the appointment by the Educational Department of a Kindergarten Inspector for the Province of Ontario. Miss Louise Currie reported that the Committee had interviewed the Minister of Education, who had promised to give the matter his most earnest consideration. Miss I. Laidlaw, of London, reported for the Committee, *re* Government grants to Kindergartens, that the matter was under consideration by the Education Department. It was decided that in view of the importance of both matters the Committees should be reappointed and that they should ask the Government for still further consideration. It was also suggested that the members of the Kindergarten Department of the O. E. A. should endeavor to enlist the interest of the members of the Local House, in whose constituency they reside. Miss Lillian Harding, of Toronto, reported for the Committee *re* the question of the publication of a Canadian Kin-

dergarten Magazine, that owing to the great expense of publication, and the comparatively small field of subscribers, it was not feasible at present. It was suggested that a Canadian Department in one of the American Kindergarten Magazines might be arranged for, and the same Committee, with the addition of Miss Grace Johnson, of Stratford, was re-appointed. After a brief discussion it was decided to enlarge the Executive Committee as suggested on Wednesday morning. The election of officers then took place. In retiring from the Presidency, Miss Baker thanked the members for their generous responses to the appeals made during the year and their growing interest in the affairs of the Association, and hoped that the incoming President would receive the same hearty support, for there was much important work to be done. She also expressed her appreciation of the co-operation of the other members of the Executive.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS.

<i>President</i>	-	-	-	Miss Louise Currie, Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i>	-	-	-	Miss Clara Brenton, London.
<i>Director</i>	-	-	-	Miss Ada Baker, Ottawa.
<i>Secty.-Treas.</i>	-	-	-	Miss Hannah E. Heakes, 33 Hepburn St., Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	-	-	-	Miss B. Savage, Hamilton; Miss Grace Johnson, Strat- ford; Miss S. J. Cameron, Ottawa; Miss M. Hotson, Parkhill; Miss B. Hogg, Galt; Miss E. Howell, Brant- ford; Miss E. Duncan. Owen Sound; Miss L. Harding, Toronto.

Miss Adair then gave the third lecture in the course on "Interpretation of the Child and the Race in Literature" (see page 251), at the close of which a hearty vote of thanks was passed to her, and the third session of what was conceded to have been the most successful and enjoyable Convention in the history of the Kindergarten Department adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 18TH, 1911.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. in Room 33, University College, Toronto, Dr. H. T. J. Coleman, President of the Department, in the chair.

The first session was opened with devotional exercises by the President of the Department.

Papers were read by President Coleman and Principal Scott. Dr. Coleman's paper on the Psychological Foundations of Professional Training showed careful thought and was characterized as one of the best papers ever read at the Association. Principal Scott gave an interesting and instructive resume of the growth of professional training in Ontario. The session closed at 12.30. The afternoon was devoted to attendance at the meetings of the general association in Convocation Hall.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

The forenoon was devoted to a joint meeting with the Inspectors' section in Room 65. A paper was read by Inspector Thompson of East Middlesex and addresses were delivered by Dean Ellis of the Faculty of Education, Queen's University, and Principal Walker of Peterboro' Normal School. These gentlemen emphasized the need of more thorough preparation in academic training for admission to the Normal Schools, pointed out the limitations and the preparatory character of Normal Training, and showed the great opportunities and responsibilities of Inspectors in guiding young teachers in the application of the educational principles given in the Normal Course. The afternoon and evening were devoted to the meetings of the general association.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

The following officers of this department were elected for the ensuing year.

<i>President</i>	-	-	-	-	D. D. Moshier.
<i>Secretary</i>	-	-	-	-	R. W. Murray.
<i>Director</i>	-	-	-	-	F. A. Jones.

An excellent paper was read by Professor Sinclair Laird of the Faculty of Education, Queen's University, on the Training of Teachers in Scotland. On motion, Professor Laird was requested to allow his paper to be printed in the minutes. The matter of printing addresses was on motion referred to the executive of this Department.

H. T. J. COLEMAN, *President.*

D. D. MOSHIER, *Secretary*

R. W. MURRAY, *Director.*

MINUTES OF INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 18TH, 1911.

This Department convened in Room 65, at 9.30 a.m., Mr. C. B. Edwards, the President, in the chair.

The meeting was opened with prayer by Rev. Thos. McKee.

On motion, duly seconded, the minutes of last meeting were taken as printed.

On motion, H. R. Scovell was appointed Press Secretary.

Inspectors Stevens and Tom were appointed Auditors for the current year.

The following Committee on Resolutions was appointed on motion of Messrs. T. W. Standing and J. E. Tom:—

Inspectors W. J. Summerby, P. J. Thomson and E. T. White.

Inspector J. L. Moore was here introduced to the section by H. R. Scovell.

Communications were read as follows:—

From J. H. Smith, Hamilton, asking to be relieved from reading his paper on "History of the O. E. A.," as he had been invited to speak on a similar subject at the banquet. This was concurred in.

From Rev. W. H. G. Colles, re Superannuation.

On motion of Inspectors J. S. Deacon and P. J. Thomson, the following Committee on Superannuation was appointed:—

Inspectors H. D. Johnson, W. Mackintosh, and W. H. Stevens.

In lieu of J. H. Smith's paper an informal discussion was introduced by J. E. Tom on (1) Size of Inspectorates. (2) County Model Schools and other matters of importance in the Counties, Messrs. Stevens, Michell, Mackintosh and others taking part.

Inspector J. B. McDougall gave an address on "Pioneer Education in New Ontario." On motion, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered Mr. McDougall and it was requested that it be printed in the Proceedings of the Association.

TUESDAY—AFTERNOON SESSION.

Discussion was resumed on matters of general interest—Validation of Certificates, Township Grants, etc.; Messrs. Scovell, McNab, Huff, Sheppard, White, Mills, Mackintosh and Clarke taking part.

On motion of Messrs. Mills and Stevens, a committee comprising Inspectors Mills, Kilmer, Summerby, Mackintosh and McNab was appointed to outline a modification of the present grant basis.

Inspector N. W. Campbell read for the information of the section the Report of the Actuary engaged by the Minister of Education on Superannuation. Discussion was deferred till a more opportune time.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH, 9 A.M.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:—

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	J. B. McDougall, North Bay.
<i>Secretary</i>	- - - - -	A. W. Mowatt, Brockville.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	H. J. Clarke, Belleville.

Chairman C. B. Edwards then delivered his address on "Inspection as an Aid to Educational Efficiency." (See page 272.)

A most interesting and profitable discussion ensued.

A joint meeting of Inspectors and Training Departments then discussed "Suggestions Arising from Observation of New Teachers."

Inspector P. J. Thomson outlined in an effective manner the various weaknesses observed in new graduates of our training institutions and the remedies that should be applied. This was amplified and presented in various aspects by Inspectors Platt, Dearnness, N. W. Campbell, Smith, Sheppard, Scott, Moshier, Putnam and Edwards.

Dean W. S. Ellis of the Faculty of Education, Queen's University, supplemented the above by a profitable talk on "The Training of Public School Teachers." Principal Walker, of Peterborough Normal School, followed in a brief but pointed address and many helpful suggestions were educed.

THURSDAY, APRIL 20TH, 9.30 A.M.

Messrs. W. H. G. Colles and N. W. Campbell reported upon their duties as members of the Advisory Council. Methods of securing the Retention of Teachers, and Superannuation, had been the chief topics under consideration; it was considered that the latter scheme, well-devised and generally adopted, would materially assist in extending teaching terms.

The Committee on Grants reported as follows—

That in view of the continued scarcity of teachers and the necessity of increase of salaries the following changes be made in the present scheme:—

1. Fixed Grants to be \$50, \$35, and \$20.
2. That the Township Grant should remain as at present, but that the County be required to raise by general levy \$100 for each Principal and \$50 for each Assistant.
3. The grant on teacher's salary should be 60 per cent. of all over minimum as modified by preceding section up to a maximum of \$700.
4. The grants on teachers' qualifications should be:—
 - For 1st Class Certificates (permanent), \$40.
 - For 2nd Class Certificates (permanent), \$25.
 - For 1st Class Certificates (interim), \$25.
 - For 2nd Class Certificates (interim) \$15.
5. That urban municipalities be dealt with more liberally than at present.

The report was on motion adopted.

The Superannuation Committee reported as follows:—

"We, the committee appointed to consider the scheme, beg to report that while we do not feel competent to deal with the actuary's work we recommend the adoption of the scheme by the Education Department, believing that this will be in the best interests of the teaching profession."

Inspector A. Odell ably outlined a scheme for the "Reconstruction of the Rural School Systems," and the thanks of the section were tendered him for his timely and practical suggestions.

A "Round-table Discussion on School Inspection" was introduced by High School Inspector J. A. Houston, who presented in an able manner the duties and responsibilities of the office and the high ideals that should actuate the inspector in the discharge thereof.

Inspectors Powers and Smith (Stratford) followed, showing the large place the Inspector occupied in the educational system and the influence he exerted in the community as well as in the teaching profession.

The following resolution was adopted on motion of Messrs. White and McNab:—

"Whereas the number of teaching days in rural schools has been reduced from some 212 to 200, and whereas there is a great disparity in the amount of time required in travelling in the different inspectorates, and whereas the amount of clerical work is very considerable and is ever increasing, and whereas the inspector must have time to keep abreast of the educational thought of the day, it is hereby resolved that the clause in the circular which fixes the minimum time at 240 half days be cancelled and there be no minimum time fixed, but that in addition to the two regular visits of prescribed length the inspector make such additional visits as in his judgment seem advisable, and that a copy of this resolution be forwarded to the Education Department."

The report of the Committee on Resolutions requesting additional time to obtain information in relation to resolution of condolence and desiring power to forward same when prepared, for insertion in the proceedings, was adopted.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy was present and advocated in the strongest terms the interests of defective and retarded children, stating the helpful measures already instituted and inviting the support of the inspectoral body.

The meeting then adjourned at 12 a.m.

J. B. McDougall, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 18TH.

The twenty-fifth session of Trustees' Section of Ontario Educational Association met at the University Building, with Dr. J. A. White, Lindsay, in the chair. Some 60 delegates registered the first afternoon.

The Chairman called the meeting to order at 2.30 p.m., and Rev. Mr. Bell, of Orangeville, opened the meeting with prayer.

Messrs. Rammage, of Durham, and Bell, of Orangeville, were appointed the Press Committee.

Messrs. Abbott, of Meaford, and Wright, of Owen Sound, were appointed Auditors.

UNFINISHED BUSINESS FROM LAST SESSION.

The Committee appointed to forward the resolutions recommended during last session reported that the Committee had met at the Agricultural College, Guelph, Dec. 8th, 1910, and had formulated seven resolutions to be sent to the Honourable the Minister of Education:

1. That we approve of Mr. R. E. LeSuer's paper read at the Trustees' Association, March, 1910, and which is printed in the Proceedings of the Association for 1910, page 284.

2. That the number of Trustees on the Advisory Council be increased to four representatives.

3. That County Councils may appoint Trustees who reside either within the High School or Collegiate Institute District, or in any part of the County, but who will not have a vote on Capital Expenditure.

4. That County and non-resident pupils in Collegiate Institutes or High Schools pay their full proportion of the net cost of maintenance.

5. That the word School in the Truancy Act be defined as follows:

"School shall mean a place where children between the ages of 8 and 14 attend for the full term in which such place is open each year and instruction is given regularly by a properly qualified teacher in Reading, Spelling, Writing, Grammar, Geography and Arithmetic from Text-Books, duly authorized by the Department of Education of Ontario, and subject to inspection by the Inspector of the inspectorate."

6. That we approve of the action taken by the Public School Teachers in reference to having a monthly educational Journal or Pamphlet issued by the Education Department containing such information from time to time as will tend to bring about a united action between the Department, the Teachers and the Trustees.

7. That Trustees should be financially recognized by the Department wherever County Trustee Associations are organized and where they meet annually the same as Teachers' Associations now are recognized by the Department.

Moved by Mr. McKnight, seconded by Mr. Rammage, that the printed Proceedings of the 1910 session be accepted as printed.

The following correspondence was received by the Secretary:

D. A. McLachlan, re contracts.

Secretary Board of Education, Berlin, re A. W. Beall, M.A., of Whitby, being appointed as lecturer on Social Purity.

A. E. Devitt, Secretary Public School Board, Waterloo, recommending a similar appointment.

From Treasurer, Toronto School Board.

From Deputy Minister of Education, acknowledging receiving copy of resolutions passed by the Committee appointed in 1910.

From County Clerk, Halton, re delegates.

From County Clerk, Elgin, re delegates.

From County Clerk, Bruce, re delegates.

From County Clerk, Oxford, re delegates.

From County Clerk, York, re delegates.

From County Clerk, Peel, re delegates.

From Sarnia Board of Education, re delegates.

From Sec. Toronto Board of Education, re delegates.

From Board of Education, Caledonia, re Form of Contract.

From Secretary Toronto Board of Education, re delegates.

From County Clerk, Waterloo, re delegates.

From S. B. McCready, re delegates from Consolidated Public School, Guelph.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

Receipts.

Delegates	\$146 50
General Association	50 00
Due Treasurer	12 95

\$209 45

Expenditure.

Due Treasurer	\$ 42 45
R. W. Doan	42 50
Railways	17 50
Postage	2 00
Printing	6 00
Printing	12 00
Printing	2 00
Sec.-Treas. Allowance	75 00
Postage and Stationery	10 00
	<hr/>
	\$209 45

At 2.40 p.m. the President, Dr. J. A. White, read his address. (See page 281.)

Moved by F. W. Wright, seconded by Mr. Huston, That the President's address be given to a committee composed of the following gentlemen: G. Rutherford, Shelburne; Mr. Huston, Exeter, and Mr. Rammage, Durham, to report thereon.

Owing to the fact that Col. Sam Hughes would not be able to be with us on Wednesday, the President arranged to have the Colonel with us this afternoon at 3.30.

Col. Sam. Hughes, M.P., Lindsay, delivered a most excellent and able address. (See page 293.)

Moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Newby, That the addresses be received and printed in our minutes. Carried.

Some discussion followed on the contents of the paper, which was participated in by Mr. Stevenson, re elevating character of military drill, mentally, morally and physically. J. J. Morrison spoke of the development taking place under military drill. F. W. Wright and Mr. Robb, of St. Thomas, spoke very assuringly and confidently of the healthy and beneficial results of military drill under the Boy Scout movement in St. Thomas.

J. A. Morrison, of Mt. Elgin, referred to the discussion which took place at a previous session on this topic, and recommended the disciplinary effect rather than the military aspect of the case, and approved of the physical and disciplinary effect contained in such exercises.

Mr. Little referred to a medium course, and touched on the patriotic influence which exercises of this description could develop.

B. J. Palmer referred to the conditions under certain circumstances which would have a tendency to lessen that particular effect which we are striving to reach.

The Secretary referred to the paper in general as to the scope covered by it and the useful references contained therein.

A Question Drawer under Mr. Jos. Staples' supervision was then recommended.

The meeting adjourned at 4.30 to meet Wednesday at 9 a.m.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH.

The second meeting of the 25th session met pursuant to adjournment.

Dr. J. A. White in the chair.

The Question Drawer under Mr. Staples' supervision was introduced.

1. Re contracts engaging teachers.

2. Re the defects in our Educational System.

(a) Does it cost too much?

(b) What subjects should be included in curriculum?

3. (a) As to subjects in congested curriculum, pupils are not taught to think in the fundamentals deeply enough to make a lasting impression on their minds.

(b) Recommended that teachers be impressed that they are morally bound to remain in charge of School between midsummer and Christmas.

4. Are children better fitted at the present time for life's work than forty years ago?

5. Re representative on Advisory Council by rural Trustee Associations, was satisfactorily disposed of by Mr. J. J. Morrison.

6. Quality of Teachers.

7. Heating and ventilating of Schools.

8. Teaching agriculture in rural schools.

Moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Reid, That the thanks of the Association be tendered Mr. Staples for his most excellent answers given to the questions in the Drawer. Carried.

Moved by Adam Hellyer, Kenilworth, seconded by W. T. Whale, Drayton, that in the opinion of this Association of Public and High School Trustees, it is advisable to place the entrance to High Schools at the end of the fifth form instead of at the end of the fourth form, thus having the work of the first form in the High Schools taken up in the Public Schools.

Re Teachers' contracts, it was moved by Dr. E. H. Wickwan and Mr. Staples, and moved and seconded by Messrs. McLachlan and Reid, that a committee be appointed consisting of Messrs. McLachlan, Wickwan and Buchanan to consider the question and report thereon.

Mr. Laughton, one of the members of the Advisory Council, handed in the following report for consideration by the meeting:

To the Honorable the Minister of Education:—

Your Trustees at the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association came to the conclusion that our present Public Schools are not completing their work as outlined by Dr. Ryerson in his report of 1846, which advised a completed unit, and a committee was appointed to present their views on this matter along with several other findings to you for your serious consideration.

At a meeting held in Guelph in December the other subjects were dealt with and forwarded to you and a sub-committee appointed to deal with the most important matter, as it affects the foundation of all education and also the finished education of 95 per cent. of all our children.

We are of the opinion that you are cognizant of the fact that the standard for the masses is not complete, and your Trustees wish to compliment you for the many advances you have made in trying to uplift the Public School to its proper standard, the most commendable one being your efforts to place a professional teacher in every section of the Province. Being of the opinion that in the near future we will have a professional teacher in every school, it is the desire of your Trustees that you raise the standard of Education in the Public School and make the same a compulsory one up to the age of fifteen. The standard to be that now prescribed for the fifth form in the following subjects, viz.: Reading, Writing, Spelling, Geography, Grammar, Arithmetic, Composition, Book-keeping and History, a graduation examination to be held at completion of this standard, the successful students to receive a

diploma from the Minister of Education, countersigned by the Principal of the School.

The Truancy Act to be made to conform to the Standard and the word School in same Act to be made to mean a place where these subjects are taught from the authorized Text-books of the Province by a properly qualified teacher and subject to inspection by the Public School Inspector.

A compliance on this finding of the Trustees of the Province will be hailed with pleasure by all the people of Ontario. It will give a value to the product of the Public School, the People's University, and will provide our children with a proper foundation on which to build their future, whether it be on the farm or in the workshop, High School, Technical School or Agricultural College or the University.

Trusting our desires may be yours, and pledging our earnest and active support in attaining a finished article in our Public Schools,

We are, yours most sincerely,

The Trustees of Ontario.

J. C. TOLMIE, Windsor,
R. E. LESUER, Sarnia,
J. H. LAUGHTON, Parkhill,
J. J. MORRISON, Arthur,

*(Sub-Committee on matters to be presented
to the Honorable the Minister of Educa-
tion.)*

The following committee was appointed to deal with the Pension question: R. Reid, Berlin; J. Staples, Lindsay; Mr. Rammage, Durham.

Social Purity: Dr. Watson, President of the Social Purity Reform Association, addressed the meeting on behalf of his Society. Dr. Jennie Grey, the Vice-President of the same association, likewise addressed the meeting on the same subject. Rev. Mr. Skey was introduced to the meeting, and requested the privilege of speaking to the members along the same lines, which was granted to him. The principal points brought out by the speakers were among some others the following:

1st, Ignorance.

2nd, Truths distorted and only half truths taught.

3rd, Vitiating minds and bodies.

4th, Morals are not considered by some parents to be of such great importance as to receive the position they should command in the training of the child.

5th, The difficulty in the home seems to be the hardest obstacle to overcome, and how to reach the proper parties to remedy the evil if any existed.

Mr. Abbott read the report of the Auditors' statement. Certified correct.

Moved by Mr. Abbott, seconded by Mr. Wright, That we receive and adopt the Auditors' report of Treasurer's statement. Carried.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

<i>President</i>	- - - -	Rev. J. R. Bell, Orangeville.
<i>Vice-Pres.</i>	- - -	Dr. Hoig, Oshawa.
<i>Sec. Treas.</i>	- - -	A. Werner, Elmira.
<i>Director</i>	- - - -	Dr. White. Lindsay.

Messrs. Staples and Elliott were appointed a nominating committee to select members for the Executive Council. At 10.45, W. T. Whale read a paper on "The Teaching of Morals in our Schools." (See page 290.)

Moved by Rev. Mr. Bell, seconded by Mr. Rammage, that the paper read by Mr. Whale be received and printed in our minutes. Carried.

SOCIAL PURITY.

Moved by Mr. Elliott, seconded by Mr. Lumby, That this Section appreciates the desire for purity and morality in our schools and is of the opinion that a carefully considered plan should be provided for the prevention of and instruction on the subject by properly qualified authority.

The meeting having appointed a committee to deal with this question, deferred action awaiting committee's report.

Prof. H. T. J. Coleman gave an excellent address on the Special Problems of the Modern School. (See page 288.)

Mr. Palmer moved, and Mr. J. A. Morrison seconded, the following resolution:

This meeting wishes to thank Prof. Coleman for his most excellent and instructive address, and appreciates the interest he is taking in the great question of education, as evidenced in the substance of his address and manifested by the expression in delivering the same. Carried.

Executive Committee named: Dr. Wiseman, Smith's Falls; J. R. Lumby, Fort William; C. Rammage, Durham; Jos. Staples, Lindsay; Henry Roe, St. Thomas; D. M. Chambers, Ottawa; R. Reid, Berlin.

Moved by Mr. Staples, seconded by Mr. Elliott, That the above-named gentlemen constitute the Executive Committee. Carried.

The meeting unanimously decided to work in session during the afternoon.

Meeting adjourned to 2 p.m.

The Committee handed in the following report on Teachers' Agreements:

Resolved, That the Trustees' Section of the O.E.A. assembled do hereby memorialize the Minister of Education to have the Act, inasmuch as it relates to engagement of teachers and teachers' contracts, amended to read as follows:

1. That contracts throughout Ontario be made uniform between Teacher and Trustee Boards.

2. All contracts to terminate at midsummer holidays.

3. That it be one of the regulations of the Department, that, in the case of teachers accepting an engagement by telegram or letter, such acceptance form part of the contract, and be considered as such.

JAMES BUCHANAN,
E. H. WICKWAY,
D. A. McLACHLAN.

Moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Wilson, That the report be received and adopted. Carried.

A most interesting hour was spent in discussion, and it gave the members present an opportunity to ventilate one of the most serious problems of the day which Trustees have to deal with. Vested rights belonging to both parties received a large share of consideration. The first clause carried without any particular discussion. Clause two was considered more minutely, as it appeared to be of a more serious nature, and after a great many

suggestions were proposed, in which the question as to how and when the contract should terminate was considered by the gentlemen present who had met particular features of the difficulty, the following members spoke on the question: Messrs. Ormiston, of Uxbridge; Doolittle, of Orillia; Laschinger, of Elmira; Morrison, of Mount Elgin; Hodge, of Oshawa; McLachlan, of Stratford; Rammage, of Durham; Col. Farewell, of Whitby; McDermott, of Elmvale; Staples, of Lindsay; Shaw, of Toronto; Reid, of Berlin; Rev. Mr. Reid, of Campbellford; J. H. Laughton, Parkhill; Little, of Shelburne; B. J. Palmer, of New Durham.

The meeting finally adopted the following:

1. That contracts between Teachers and Trustees be made uniform in Ontario.
2. That contracts terminate at Midsummer vacation only.
3. That a teacher having accepted an engagement by telegram or letter, such an acceptance be made binding between teacher and Trustee, and a violation thereof by the teacher should incur a penalty of suspension of the certificate.
4. That clause four of Teachers' Agreements, as given on page 35, Act of 1910, reading as follows: "That Trustee or School Boards may, at their option, respectively terminate the engagement by giving notice in writing to the other of them, at least ——— calendar months, previously, and so as to terminate on the last day of a calendar month," be struck out.

Moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. McLachlan. That the Committee's report as amended be adopted. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Staples, That the amended report be given to the delegation who are to wait on the Minister. Carried.

The Social Purity Committee reported as follows:

Your Committee appointed to consider the subject of Personal Hygiene and Moral Purity in the Schools of Ontario respectfully report as follows: That this Association, being convinced of the necessity of teaching the subject of personal hygiene and moral purity in the Schools of Ontario, for the physical and moral well-being of our children, resolve to petition the Hon. Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education, to take the necessary steps to place the subject in the Curriculum of Studies and to have it embodied in pamphlet or booklet form for teaching and reading. and that teachers properly qualified be appointed for the work, and we also

recommend that the resolutions of the School Boards presented to this Committee be forwarded to the Minister.

J. E. HETT,
HELEN MACMURCHY,
JAMES BUCHANAN,
J. R. BELL,
J. A. WHITE.

Moved by Dr. Hett, seconded by Rev. Bell, That this report be adopted. Carried.

Notice of motion, given by D. A. MacLachlan, seconded by Rev. A. J. Reid, being withdrawn, the Committee to whom the Pension question was given report as follows:

The Committee to whom the Pension question was given, report as follows:

To the Trustees' Department of the O. E. A.:

That in view of the fact that the teaching bodies are the parties most deeply interested in any pension scheme, we deem it advisable to defer the matter until we hear from the teachers, in so far as the schemes would promote permanence in the teaching profession, and we are strongly in favor of it.

R. REID,
C. RAMMAGE,
JOS. STAPLES.

Mr. Staples in speaking of the resolution, said in part that this Section should strengthen the cause, by their support, as soon as the most deeply interested parties could arrive at some definite plan of action, satisfactory to themselves.

Mr. Laughton and Mr. R. Reid spoke on the question.

Moved by Mr. R. Reid, seconded by Mr. Ormiston, That the report of the Committee be received and adopted. Carried.

Moved by Mr. R. Reid, seconded by Mr. J. Staples, That since the Presidency of the General Association falls to this Department for next year, this Department cheerfully nominate and support Mr. J. H. Laughton, a member of this Department, as a candidate for the position of Presidency of the General Association for the ensuing year. Carried.

Adjourned to meet Thursday, 9.30 a.m.

THURSDAY, APRIL 20TH.

The meeting opened at 9.30 a.m., with the President in the chair.

The minutes of the two previous meetings were read, and upon motion by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Newby, were adopted with a slight amendment being made thereto.

A visitor, in the person of Mary J. B. Wylie, a Lady Trustee, representing Deer Park School, attended during the morning session. The President extended a welcome to her.

Under the head of new business for this session, Mr. Telfer suggested as a topic for immediate discussion the following subject: "Art occupying too prominent a position at the present day."

A paper on "Our School System" was read by Mr. W. E. Pollard, of Darlington, Bowmanville post-office. The paper had been prepared for another occasion, and those who had the pleasure of hearing it read before persuaded Mr. Pollard to bring it to the meeting of the Trustees' Association, to be read and have it discussed by them. The meeting gave Mr. Pollard a patient hearing and expressed themselves in favor of parts of Mr. Pollard's paper.

The discussion was all good-natured, and benefit resulted from the discussion. Members fully appreciated the interesting and wholesome discussion on some point or points brought forward. It was moved by Mr. J. H. Laughton, seconded by J. J. Morrison, That we tender our thanks to Mr. Pollard for the reading of his paper. Carried.

Mr. Linsey, of Springfield, addressed the meeting in connection with County Councils sending delegates to this meeting, and urged County Councils to be represented. The County of Elgin, of which he was one of the representatives, was taking a deep interest in Education and the members of the County Council profited by attending this Association.

At 10.50 a.m., D. A. McKenzie, B.A., delivered an address on "The Teaching of Agriculture."

The subject was considered by Mr. McKenzie more along the lines of how to interest the agriculturist than as to the inclusion of the subject in the School Curriculum. He spoke of the manner in which our Government is bringing knowledge to the agriculturist's door, and of the ultimate success and benefits resulting therefrom. The speaker delighted his hearers, and upon motion by Mr. Huston, of Exeter, and seconded by Mr. J. J. Morrison, Arthur, it

was resolved, That this meeting express their appreciation of the many good points in the speaker's address, also in the subject matter, and the exceeding simplicity displayed in treating so difficult and intricate a subject. Carried.

Messrs. John Mair, Collingwood, and J. A. Morrison, Mt. Elgin, briefly referred to the great benefit that must result from work being done along the lines outlined by the speaker.

The Committee appointed on the President's address, report as follows: That we recommend the adopting of the President's address and printing it in our minutes.

Moved by Mr. Huston, seconded by Mr. Buchanan, that the report be accepted. Carried.

R. McKnight, Esq., of Owen Sound, was elected an honorary member of this Association, as a token of appreciation of the services rendered by him during his long term of membership.

The following gentlemen compose the Committee to prepare and present any matter which is to be laid before the Minister of Education as directed by the members of this Department:

C. J. Millard, Coldwater; J. Hodges, Oshawa; Rev. Mr. Bell, Orangeville; Dr. White, Lindsay; Mr. Ormiston, Uxbridge; John Mair, Collingwood; J. H. Laughton, Park Hill; J. J. Morrison, Arthur.

In reference to Mr. Telfer's subject, it was moved by Mr. Laughton, seconded by Mr. Hodges, That a paper on the Study of Art should be prepared by Mr. Telfer, of Sarnia, and read at our next meeting. Carried.

Mr. Lumby, of Fort William, asked what should or could be done with scholars who, although successful in the majority of subjects on which they are examined, and if successful promoted, repeatedly fail in one particular subject and are consequently held back, very much to the injury of the child's education. Dr. Helen MacMurehy kindly informed the meeting that this question was receiving attention by the proper authorities, and those who were actually unfortunate would find some relief provided for them in the very near future, but in the meantime urged upon those present that they should exercise an oversight on the affairs of the School, and no Principal would work to the disinterest of the child's education.

The President was asked to vacate the chair, and the President for ensuing term to take it, upon motion by Messrs. Huston and Bell.

Rev. Mr. Bell, having taken the chair, it was moved by Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Mair, That this meeting tender Dr. White, the retiring President, their thanks for the courtesy extended to them; for his tact and genial diplomacy in arranging the time and the speakers, for giving members many privileges, and using these to such advantage for the general benefit, and the treatment bestowed upon the meeting with his genial good nature; and to the Secretary in preparing and presenting the proceedings of the sessions so efficiently, and at times under great disadvantages, and that the usual honorarium be granted to our Secretary. Carried.

The work of the meeting was brought to a close by Rev. Mr. Reid pronouncing the benediction.

A meeting was held in the afternoon of the members appointed to prepare such resolutions as were directed by the meeting for presentation to the Minister of Education, and upon motion of Rev. Mr. Hodges, seconded by Mr. Mair, the President, the Secretary and Mr. J. H. Laughton were appointed a sub-committee to personally interview the Minister relative to the questions considered and discussed at this meeting. Carried.

MINUTES OF THE HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH, 1911.

The eighth annual meeting of the Home Science Section was held in the Ladies' Reading Room, West Wing, Toronto University. The first session opened at 10 a.m., April 19th, 1911.

The President, Mrs. Twiss, was in the chair.

After the opening exercises the minutes of the seventh annual meeting were read and approved. The Treasurer's report showed a balance of \$32.59.

The President appointed the Auditors, Miss Ferguson and Miss Robertson; the nominating committee, Misses Eadie, McVannel, De Laporte, Elliot and Ferguson, and the Press Reporter, Miss Calhoun. Other business was deferred till Thursday morning. In the President's address she pointed out the need of Household Science training for our girls, not only in cookery, but in the so-called arts applicable in home making.

Mrs. Baird, of the Victoria Hospital, London, gave a very interesting paper on the work of "The Dietitian in the Hospital."

The next item in the programme was a paper by Miss Marie De Laporte, on "The Teaching of Household Art."

"The Teaching of House Decoration," as presented by Miss Clara Elliott, of the Normal School, Hamilton, was made very interesting and profitable and showed the possibilities in even a few lessons on this subject.

The meeting adjourned at twelve o'clock to meet at two in the afternoon.

AFTERNOON MEETING.

The afternoon meeting was opened by a review by Miss Olive Patterson, of "Recent Scientific Books."

Miss McVannel then gave a paper on "Evening Classes," which was followed by a discussion.

A symposium, which consisted of reports of the results of experiments carried on at the Lillian Massey School, closed the afternoon meeting. One paper was given by Miss Ockley, on "Baking Powder Experiments," showing the differences in the lightening power of different brands and the effect of long standing of mixtures. Miss McFarlane gave the results, and her conclusions on experiments on gelatine, showing the differences in the stiffening power of animal and vegetable gelatine, and the effect of acid.

Miss Eadie's paper was postponed till Thursday morning, owing to the fact that the time allowed for the meeting had expired.

THURSDAY, APRIL 20TH.

The Section was called to order at 10 a.m., Thursday morning.

Miss Eadie gave the postponed paper, the results of experiments on amounts of food required for various expenditures of energy.

Miss Edna Ferguson, of Berlin, followed with a talk on "Difficulties of Teaching Household Science and Ways of Overcoming Them." This was discussed by several members.

Miss Eadie described her work at King's College, London, England, and read a paper by Miss Ockley, on "The Higher Education of Woman."

The Nominating Committee reported the following slate:

<i>President</i>	- - - -	Miss Laird, Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Miss Elliot, Hamilton.
<i>Sec'y.-Treas.</i>	- - - -	Miss Pattinson, Lillian Massey School, Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Misses Watson, Ewing, Twiss, De La- porte, Pearson, Davidson and Patter- son.

The officers were elected as nominated, on the motion of Miss Eadie, seconded by Miss Fraser.

The meeting then reverted to general business, which consisted of the report of the Bureau of Information Committee, given by Miss McLennan, the Secretary. In it was explained the means which had been employed to collect information, and the co-operation of all Household Science workers was asked. A bill of \$3.42 for postage was presented, the other expenses being paid by Miss Watson, to whom the Association extended its thanks.

It was moved by Miss Elliott, seconded by Miss Eadie, That the bill be paid, and in future the Section meet any expense incurred in the formation or carrying on of the Bureau of Information. Carried.

Meeting adjourned.

LILLIAN F. SHEFFIELD,
Secy.-Treas., Home Science Section.

MINUTES OF THE PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE SECTION.

The Physical Training and School Hygiene Section met in Room 59, the following members being present:—Wm. Oldwright, A. P. Knight, A. Addison, J. W. Barton, Edith Cottle, Edith Nainby, J. J. Syme, Emma Deyman, G. N. Bramfitt, H. W. Auden, W. F. Chapman, Helen MacMurchy, W. E. Struthers, E. A. Chapman.

The following was the programme of the session:—

(1) "Children Who Require Special Attention." Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Toronto.

(2) "Atypical Children," Geo. A. Auden, M.A., M.D., Medical Superintendent for the Education Committee, Birmingham, England.

(3) Demonstrations at the University Gymnasium:—

(i.) The Corsan Method of Teaching Class Swimming.

(ii.) The Schafer Method of Resuscitation.

The officers elected for 1911 and 1912 were:—

<i>Hon. President</i>	-	Wm. Oldright.
<i>President</i>	-	Jas. W. Barton.
<i>Vice-President</i>	-	A. P. Knight
<i>Sec.-Treasurer</i>	-	W. F. Chapman.
<i>Director</i>	-	Helen MacMurchy.
<i>Councillors</i>	-	W. F. Chapman, W. E. Groves, G. N. Bramfitt, Mrs. A. Huestis, H. W. Auden.

MINUTES OF MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

UNIVERSITY BUILDING, ROOM 11, APRIL 18TH, 1911.

The meeting was opened with the President, Mr. Scarrow, in the chair.

The minutes of last year's session of the Manual Arts Department were read by the Secretary, and adopted by motion.

The President gave his address on "The Present Outlook on the Status of Manual Art in Ontario." He compared the cultural value of the subject with the industrial value. Too much emphasis, he said, has been put on the former, and too little on the latter. He recommended that geometry be taught in the Public School curriculum. He believed that Manual Training Art and Drawing should have an industrial bent.

Those taking part in the discussion on the paper were Mr. Painter, Inspector Leake, and Mr. N. L. Richardson.

It was moved and seconded that Mr. Scarrow's address be incorporated in the published Proceedings of the O. E. A. Carried.

Mr. H. J. Baker, of Toronto, being unable to be present, his paper was read by Principal G. M. Richie, of Toronto. The subject was "Canadian and American Methods in Manual Arts."

Manual Art, he said, should be taught from Kindergarten through elementary schools and High schools. In some of the United States they have tried this plan successfully.

Mr. Richardson led the discussion. He recommended freedom in courses. He said that the work of this year should not be the work of *last*. He admired the experimental spirit of the United States.

It was moved and seconded that Mr. Baker's paper be incorporated in the Annual Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH, 1911.

A large attendance was present, including the Commercial Section.

Mr. T. W. Kidd, of Riverdale High School, gave an admirable address on "Design Work in High Schools." He believed, he said, that art should really be taught through *design* work. There should be a close relation between design work and the lives of the pupils. The designs should be applied in problems of manual training. The pupils should learn to re-work and develop their designs; they should conventionalize the forms used. He recommended that many examples of work should be used in teaching.

Discussion on the paper was taken part in by Messrs. Fleming and Scarrow.

Miss Auta Powell gave an excellent paper on "The Value of Art in its Correlation with other Subjects of Study." She went over the different subjects of study and showed how art should be correlated with each.

A lengthy and good discussion on the paper was engaged in by Mrs. Mayberry, Mrs. Mabee and Mr. Birchard.

It was moved by Mr. Painter, and seconded by Mr. Seavey, That Miss Powell's paper be published in the Annual Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association.

It was moved by Mr. Fleming, and seconded by Mr. Mercer, That Mr. Kidd's paper be incorporated in the published Proceedings of the Ontario Education Association.

Mr. Seavey, then continued the discussion of Mr. Kidd's paper.

Inspector Leake recommended beauty in structural as well as ornamental design.

Mr. R. F. Fleming spoke on the needs of the Public School pupils. At present, he said, pupils had nowhere to get an idea

of what to do in art work. He showed a simple folio which he had designed with illustrations and designs on the two inner pages. This would give ideas to the pupil and, at the same time, hold his drawings.

OFFICERS—MANUAL ARTS DEPARTMENT, 1911-12.

<i>Hon. President</i>	- - -	Mr. A. A. Scarrow.
<i>President</i>	- - - -	Mrs. Helen Mayberry.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Mr. J. S. Mercer.
<i>Sec'y.-Treas.</i>	- - - -	Mr. R. F. Fleming.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Miss A. Powell, Messrs. A. J. Painter, Hagerman, J. K. Davidson.

MINUTES OF CONTINUATION SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL, 18TH, 1911.

The Continuation Section met in Room 12 at 9.30, April 18th, 1911. After the registration of members and submission of railway certificates the session opened at 10 o'clock, when the minutes of the last meeting were read and adopted.

Mr. J. A. Magee was appointed Press Secretary. Messrs. Cameron and Clarke were appointed Auditors, and Messrs. Shannon, Morris, and Clarke as a committee on resolutions.

The President, Mr. W. B. Weidenhammer, of Exeter, then gave his address on "Technical Education in Continuation Schools." He emphasized the following points:

1. Technical Education has been made necessary by rapid national development, industrial enterprise, waste in production through lack of knowledge, and through the increasing scarcity of farm laborers.
2. The Government, realizing the necessity, are making liberal grants to aid Technical Education,—High Schools alone having hitherto taken any appreciable advantage thereof.
3. The Continuation School must solve the difficulty for the farmer, and become the rural Technical High School. Scientific instruction suitable to industrial and farm life should be supplemented by class debates, oral composition, and reading along the line of agricultural bulletins, etc.

Mr. N. Willison, of Coldwater, followed with a somewhat parallel paper on "The Mission of the Continuation School." He pointed out that the Continuation School should not merely prepare candidates for Normal Entrance and Matriculation, but should aim to discover and develop special interests in each locality and child. Our instruction should be of such a nature as to supply local demands. Agricultural Matriculation is as necessary as University Matriculation. Considerable discussion followed, and it was suggested that it might be well to appoint a committee to report at the next annual meeting, on the subject of Technical Education as related to Continuation Schools.

The meeting adjourned at 12.30.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 19TH, 1911.

The second session met at 9.30 Wednesday, April 19th. The first address was delivered by Mr. R. H. Cowley, B.A., Inspector of Continuation Schools. In his address he noted (1) That the Continuation Schools were filling a place of increasing importance in the educational system of the province; (2) That the influences hostile to Continuation Schools were speedily disappearing; (3) That statistics showed that the work done by the best Continuation Schools compared favorably with that done in the best High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

Miss Craig followed with a paper on "The Teaching of English." Expression, she said, was the test of impression. Graduates of High and Continuation Schools were not good speakers because of repression and compulsion. Remedies lay in association with good speakers, reading good works, and in the careful use of language by teachers while teaching all subjects.

Miss Hull, of Wroxeter, suggested as "Methods of Composition," class debates, weekly compositions, discussion of current topics, and contributions to the local newspapers.

Following Miss Hull's paper, officers for the ensuing year were elected as follows:—

<i>Honorary President</i>	-	-	R. H. Cowley, B.A.
<i>President</i>	-	-	N. Willison, Coldwater.
<i>Vice-President</i>	-	-	Miss Bessie Hull.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	-	-	A. C. Bernath, Huntsville.
<i>Councillors</i>	-	-	Miss Craig, Messrs. Magee, Smith, Simpson, Overholt and Shannon.

The committee on resolutions then presented their report, and the following resolutions, after discussion, were adopted:—

- (1) That Continuation Schools are entitled to representation on the Advisory Council.
- (2) That History should be restored to the High School Entrance Examination.
- (3) That Principals of two and three-mastered Continuation Schools should by virtue of their position be members of Entrance Boards.
- (4) That a committee consisting of the officers and the ex-president prepare and present a report at the next annual meeting on "Technical Education in relation to Continuation Schools."

After the adoption of the Auditors' report the concluding session closed at 12.30.

A. C. BERNATH, *Secretary*.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

1910-1911

Receipts.

Balance from last Statement	\$477 93
Membership Fees	458 75
Advertisements in Programme	159 50
Advertisements in Proceedings	99 00
Government of Ontario, Grant	2,000 00
Sale of Proceedings	27 21
	<u>\$3,222 39</u>

Payments.

Lecturer, Prof. Balliet.....	\$140 65
Expenses of Convention	24 40
Printing, Programmes, Circulars, etc.	385 30
Postage, Mailing, Express, etc.	212 96
Secretaries of Departments	60 00
General Secretary	125 00
Treasurer	30 00
Reporting Evening Meetings	40 50
Railway Fares, Board of Directors.....	100 95
Trustees' Department, Special Grant	50 00
Commission and Refund	49 00
Printing and Binding Proceedings.....	607 62
Balance in Treasurer's hand.....	1,396 01
	<u>\$3,222 39</u>

W. J. HENDRY.
Treasurer.

R. W. DOAN,
General Secretary.

We, the undersigned Auditors, have the honour to report that we have carefully examined the books, statements, vouchers and summaries submitted by Mr. W. J. Hendry, Treasurer of the Association, and have found them systematically kept and correct in every particular.

The balance on hand is one thousand three hundred and ninety-six dollars and one cent (\$1,396.01).

Yours truly,

D. YOUNG.
J. DEARNESS,
Auditors.

TORONTO, April 17th, 1911.

*THE DEDICATION OF THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION
BUILDING, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.*

On the afternoon of Thursday, April 20th, the Ontario Educational Association, at the invitation of the University of Toronto, participated in the dedicatory exercises of the new Faculty of Education Building, Bloor Street and Spadina Avenue.

President Falconer of the University presided and with him on the platform were Chancellor Burwash, Mr. Justice Riddell, Dr. J. A. Macdonald, Dr. F. W. Merchant, Dr. A. H. U. Colquhoun, President Hill, Dean Pakenham and Professor Coleman.

President Falconer in his introductory remarks explained that, though the new building had been occupied since the previous September, it had seemed peculiarly appropriate to postpone any formal dedicatory exercises until the annual meeting of the Ontario Educational Association. He spoke briefly of the character of the Model Schools which were being conducted under the auspices of the Faculty of Education and emphasized the fact that, through the opportunities for practice and experiment which they furnished, they were intended to serve the educational interests of the Province as a whole.

Dr. Colquhoun, as representing the Education Department, expressed the regrets of the Minister of Education at his inability, because of illness in his family, to be present. He traced briefly the work of the University Commission of 1905, in so far as it dealt with the problem of the Faculty of Education. He alluded appreciatingly to the work of Dean Pakenham and spoke of the cordial interests of the Education Department in the Provincial University and of the satisfaction of all concerned that the work of the Faculty of Education had so far been so conspicuous a success.

Dr. Merchant, the retiring president of the Ontario Educational Association, extended to the University the hearty congratulations of the Association which he represented, and alluded to his personal connection with an earlier phase of the movement for the professional training of high school teachers. He spoke of the difficulty of finding a proper balance between theory and

practice in the training of teachers and expressed the hope that the Faculty of Education would help in solving not only this problem but also others of the many very serious problems which at present beset elementary education.

The remarks of Mr. Justice Riddell were largely reminiscent in character. He spoke of his early experiences as a teacher and contrasted the teachers and schools of forty years ago with those of the present day. He remarked especially upon the development, within the last half century of the free school movement and of the movement for the professional training of teachers with the consequent improvement in the professional and economic status of the teacher.

Dr. J. A. Macdonald, speaking on behalf of the Board of Governors of the University, congratulated all those who had been particularly interested in the establishment of the Faculty of Education. By preference, he remarked, he would speak as the representative, not of the Board of Governors, or even of the Government of the Province (though both were eminently respectable bodies), but of the people and especially the press of the Province. It was the people who met the expense of our educational enterprises while it was the duty of the press to create the public sentiment which made such expenditure possible. There was a concurrent duty, however, which devolved upon our educational institutions and that was to do such efficient work as would make this work of the press an easy and a reasonable one.

The formal address of the afternoon was delivered by President A. Ross Hill of the University of Missouri. President Hill spoke as follows:

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It is a great pleasure to me, indeed, to be permitted to share in the formal exercises connected with the dedication of this building and to take part with you in celebrating this turning point in the development of the work of your Faculty of Education. I had the privilege about five years ago of spending two days in Toronto talking over with some members of the Board, with Dean Pakenham—who had just been elected to the position at that time—the future work of this school of education. And I have naturally watched its development since that time with great interest. I view the situation to-day not only with pleasure, therefore, but with a certain amount of envy because, strange as it may appear, I was myself the first

Dean of a Faculty of Education in any publicly supported institution on this Continent and you have in this short time so far outgrown us in your material equipment that I feel more or less envious that even in the States we cannot keep up with the rapid development that you are able to show us in connection with the development of professional training of teachers in the University of Toronto. I congratulate you not only in the work that they have accomplished thus far, but on this auspicious opening, with such favorable physical surroundings, in a building so neat and so well planned for its purposes. While it does not yet have the transfiguring beauty of age, it wears the fresh glory of a vigorous prime and is quite appropriate to the work that is being undertaken, which is really a new work among Universities. The Faculty of Education has itself, therefore, the portion of youth; of youth with all its lofty faith, its unconquerable hope and unbounded energy; of youth that does not count what it has already attained but looks forward to the promise of all the unrevealed and we hope splendid future. This Faculty of Education I regard as having the best opportunity on this Continent, probably, for the training of teachers in Universities. And I know of no section of country—I said so at the time—I know of no section of country in which there is such an opportunity presented for the training of teachers of the highest type as in the Province of Ontario and especially in the University of Toronto.

Naturally you will expect me to be interested and to be a believer in the professional training that a University can afford the teachers as well as in the academic training for which Universities have always stood. I will not go so far as Sir Joshua Fitch, who said the function of a University is to teach and train teachers, but I regard the training of teachers as one of the great functions of a University. It does seem to me strange that it should be ever questioned; that it should train the future lawyers and physicians and engineers and foresters and even farmers of a Province and that it should not undertake by the most direct means conceivable to train those who are to hand on culture to the oncoming generation. Now, the academic side of the training of teachers has, of course, been recognized as a University function but the professional side has not been so long recognized. It is upon that I wish to speak rather briefly this afternoon, with reference to the University's place in the professional

training of teachers; but perhaps you will pardon me for going over a little wider territory as preliminary to that and discussing in general the training of the teacher.

Aside from the personal qualifications, the prime consideration for efficient teaching seems to be sound general education for the teacher in elementary schools, and in addition special knowledge for the grade above; the higher the grade of instruction the more is special knowledge demanded. This paper must therefore consider the academic training of the teacher. But neither general scholarship nor detailed knowledge of special subjects is a guarantee of good teaching, so a farther question is, how develop professional skill, sympathy, insight and enthusiasm?

First, then, as to academic training. Too many rural school teachers have studied little beyond the same rural schools from which they graduated, have read little beyond the text-books from which they have formerly recited, have travelled little beyond the counties in which they were reared and in which they now teach. Too many grade teachers in the smaller towns have taken but a year or so in the local High School, and have not so much as attended a summer school in an institution of higher grade. Too many High School teachers are relying upon the training in schools of the same, that is, secondary, grade, and accordingly bring to their instruction but superficial and mechanical notions of the subjects which they teach and of the relative values of those subjects.

But how much academic training is demanded for each grade respectively? It is often urged that four years of training beyond the course which the teacher is to offer should be required. But this principle would not be regarded as satisfactory if applied rigidly. The teacher in the primary grades should be expected to complete a longer course than that prescribed for the four grades above, and the teacher in the first year of High School needs about as much scholarship as the teacher of fourth year high school pupils. The fact is that no one should teach at all until he or she has the maturity of judgment, the stability of character, and the knowledge of human life that comes with the years that approximate to manhood and womanhood. The teacher's office cannot be properly filled by any person possessed of the random impulses, shifting ideals, chaotic emotions and unstable character of youth. About nineteen should be the minimum age for entering upon the profession of teaching, and that is ap-

proximately the age when a secondary school course can be completed. Then, too, it may be fairly urged that one who is to teach the English of the elementary school course should have such a training in English grammar, composition, rhetoric and literature as the high school can offer, a similar training in algebra and geometry for teaching arithmetic, and a general survey of history, ancient, modern, English and Canadian for the teaching of the English and Canadian history in the elementary grades. Not only the age, then, but also the scholarship implied by the completion of a high school course would seem to be minimum demands on the academic side.

In saying this I do not mean to imply that the teachers of lowest scholarship should show a diploma from some high school. Degrees and diplomas are not the only indications of scholarship, and a person of maturity may get more in a course two years long, but well conducted and designed to meet his special needs, than from the average three or four years high school course. An instance of this is found in the elementary courses, extending over two years, that are offered by many American Normal Schools, and are admirably adapted to the training of elementary school teachers for rural communities and small towns.

The same principles will apply to the training of high school teachers. These must have gotten well beyond in experience the youth whom they would teach, and must be possessed of a scholarship equal to that secured from a college course, whether that course be taken in an institution bearing the name of "College" or not. Nor does a "go as you please" college course furnish the proper training for a high school teacher on the academic side. Sound general training followed by specialization in a subject or group of subjects which the person would teach is demanded.

Unfortunately college courses are not always planned and organized with such ideals in view. There is a growing tendency, it would seem, on the part of the college professor to treat all students on the assumption that they are to become specialists in the department which he represents. Well rounded general courses in the several departments of instruction within a college or university are demanded, alike in the interests of those who are later to specialize and of those who simply seek general culture; but they are especially important for the prospective teacher. Such general courses, however, do not give adequate scholarship

for the departmental teacher in a strong high school. They are needed as the background for sanity and proper perspective regarding his work, but they should be supplemented by additional study, by specialization in the group of related subjects which he plans to teach.

Secondly, what about the professional training of the teacher? That must come through three main avenues, imitation, practice, and reflection; or, stated in the terms of more common usage, through observation, practice, and the study of the theory and history of education. Probably the order in which they are here referred to is approximately the order of importance.

(a) Observation. Of all the influences that tend to make good teachers, probably good teaching is itself the greatest. Teaching is an art and like other arts relies much upon native genius supplemented by the observation of good models. Any city school system that has a corps of skilful teachers in all grades of its work may be expected to graduate many who by practice will quickly develop into good teachers under similar conditions; the graduate of the rural school, if he has been well taught, naturally "lights on his feet" when placed in charge of a similar school; and the college that looks carefully to the teaching skill of its faculty can surely claim to be rendering service not only to general culture but to the teaching profession as well.

But it may be asked, why separate this phase of training from the academic preparation? Because they are so often found separate in fact. The principle works in two ways. Just as good teaching tends to produce good teachers, so poor teaching tends to produce poor ones; and there are many bad models in evidence. Then, too, the graduate cannot always take up his work in the same sort of a school that he formerly attended, and the college graduate who by nature is best adapted to teaching young children finds the memory images of that stage of her own education too vague for adequate guidance. In the preparation of teachers, therefore, on the professional side, opportunities for fresh observation of good models is a prime requisite; hence the need of a model school in every school of education.

"Here work enough to watch
The Master work,
And from the sparks to catch
Hints of the proper craft.
Tricks of the tool's true play."

(b) Practice. No observation of good models can at once suffice for the development of artistic skill. "Trial and error," followed by a more enlightened effort to realize the ideal, must supplement observation and memory of models. In this way we may "rise on stepping stones of our dead selves to higher things." "Practice makes perfect."

But practice, or, as it is usually called, "experience," too often means simply the acquisition of habits of teaching, some of which are bad, and its value, therefore, cannot be measured in years. The teacher in training should have opportunity to "practice" teaching under close and efficient supervision, so that errors may be detected and corrected, bad habits of teaching "nipped in the bud," and some facility acquired in the actual conduct of school work. An hour's work of this sort daily for one year may be worth more than years of so-called experience.

(c) Study of Education. It is always wise to think before one acts, and the act of teaching is no exception to the rule. Reflection upon the general principles of method, upon their special application to various subjects, upon probable situations in the management of school affairs, upon the history of education, and upon the nature of the child and of the youth to be educated, all these have value in enabling the thoughtful teacher to anticipate experience and to carry on the details of his work with greater intelligence. Which aspect of the study of education should be emphasized, will depend upon the scholarship and maturity of the teacher in training. For the relatively immature person, the practical devices of school management and concrete suggestions as to the teaching of this subject or that, would seem likely to bear the most direct fruits; while the mature mind will receive most suggestions and the greatest stimulus from the historical and philosophical aspects of the study and will to a degree be able, through its own reflection, to make the practical applications to management and method.

The three phases of professional training,—observation, practice and study of education—above outlined, are also subject to variation of emphasis, according to the degree of maturity in the student. In general, the more mature the student, the less dependent need he be upon models and practice; and the more capable should he be of passing directly from theory to practice. The University student should not need as much of these as the Normal School student. But no school or college can hope to pro-

vide adequate training for teachers on the professional side that does not make provision for the observation of good teaching, for actual practice in teaching under close and intelligent supervision, and for the class room study of psychology and the history and principles of education.

All over the country, many high schools, colleges and universities are aiding in the preparation of teachers by their efficient instruction on the academic side, and the Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges are following the plan above outlined on the professional side.

It is my hope that the School of Education at the University of Toronto will be a leader in this work, and that in addition to the service rendered to the Province of Ontario, the whole country will receive a stimulus from and be set a standard by the work done in the professional training of teachers at this University.

Dean Pakenham was introduced as the last speaker of the afternoon. He traced briefly the history from the beginning, of the professional training of high school teachers in the province, and mentioned certain interesting features of the life of the Faculty of Education during the four years of its existence. He described in some detail the plan of the new building and referred to possible developments in the future.

A fitting close to the dedicatory exercises was furnished by a reception to the members of the O. E. A. and to the other visitors by the President of the University and the Dean and Staff of the Faculty of Education.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

MEDICAL INSPECTION.

GEORGE A. AUDEN, M.A., M.D.

In all branches of human progress there has been a gradual process of evolution from the simple to the complex, each step of which has been the necessary consequence of the previous advances. In the development of our national educational systems this fundamental fact is clearly seen, more particularly in the most recent movement to associate with the provision of educational facilities a regard for the physical needs of the children attending the Public Schools. The recognition of this fact is of prime importance, for unless we see in the medical inspection of these children an integral part of the relationship of the state to the individual we shall fail to see the enormous value which is likely to accrue therefrom to the community at large.

Education has been defined as the means whereby the individual is brought into vital touch with his environment, with the development of control as its final aim—control for the good of all. In this age of stern competitive struggle it is more and more important to keep this ideal before our eyes and to remember that the end and aim of education is not so much individual as social. You will doubtless need no reminder of that definition of a liberal education which Plato gave some twenty-four centuries ago which will stand true throughout the ages: “That education in virtue from youth upwards which makes a man eagerly pursue *the ideal perfection of citizenship* and teaches him how rightly to rule and to obey. This is the only education which, upon our view, deserves the name; that other sort of training which aims at the acquisition of wealth and bodily strength or mere cleverness apart from intelligence and justice is not worthy to be called education at all.” (*Laws*, Book I., 641.)

Our own natural philosopher, Thomas Huxley, who did so

much to raise the ideal of education in the latter part of the last century, states the same truth in other words: "That man has a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will and does with ease and pleasure the work that it is capable of."

In these two passages which I have quoted, the point to which I wish to draw your attention with all possible insistence is the necessity of the preservation of the balance in educational method between things physical, mental and artistic. Medical inspection of school children is due to the increasing recognition of the close vital connection which exists between the physical condition of the normal child and the whole process of its education. It will be of some service to us, therefore, if we take a short survey of the development of the science of School Hygiene and of its hand-maid Medical Inspection.

The Hellenic ideal of education was, as we have seen, the production of the best possible citizen. It embraced the training of the body, the mind and the character so that with the perfect development of the body the soul might become "a mansion for all lovely forms," and the memory "a dwelling place for all sweet sounds and harmonies." With the growth of educational systems ever more and more rigid during the Middle Ages came a failure to recognize the necessary harmony and balance which was the basis of this Hellenic conception of education. This was in large part due to the increasing separation of literary education from that of the art of war and to the increasing relegation of education to the monastic orders, with whom there arose a neglect if not a contempt of the body in comparison with the mind. We find, however, in the Middle Ages monks who realized the importance of regard of body and bodily exercise. For instance, a certain monk, Mirfield, who wrote a book on English medicine, and who was a Prior at the hospital to which I owe my training, St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London, writes that bishops should have a convenient rope suspended from the ceiling up which they might climb three or four times when they tired of sitting still in their chairs poring over their books. Thus there were not wanting persons, even in these dark ages, who saw the need of a wider conception of the value of a practical and healthy regime of education, but it was not until the Renaissance of the 15th century that with the revival of Greek learning there came a revival of the Greek ideal. It is therefore interesting to find amongst the

pioneers of School Hygiene one of the first scholars of the new learning, the Italian Filelfo (1398-1481).

Thenceforward the movement became international and several of the countries of Europe can lay claim to a pioneer in School Hygiene. In France Montaigne (1483), who declared that he would rather see the class rooms "strewn with green leaves and fine flowers than with the bloody stumps of the birch and willow." Rousseau, too, with his theory of "the natural rights of man," and "the social compact," exercised considerable influence upon educational method. In Germany Komensky (1592-1671), chiefly known by his work "The Great Didactic," pleaded the necessity of physical training and the adaptation of the routine and curriculum to the physical needs of the children for "airy school rooms and pleasant play-grounds." That is a claim which we still want to urge—pleasant play-grounds and airy school rooms; certainly in England. Komensky visited England and produced a profound impression upon contemporary thought.

Switzerland claims Pestalozzi (1746-1827) with his practical exposition of the principle "It is life which educates." "It is life which educates" is a wonderfully pregnant sentence.

In England our own John Locke (1632-1704) who united in himself the triple aspect of the physician, the psychologist and the pedagogue—the personal friend of Thomas Sydenham, known as the father of English medicine, who may be regarded as the father of School Hygiene in the true sense of the title.

As in recent years in England public opinion has been stirred to a recognition of the national importance of physical fitness by the demand for soldiers—during the period of the Boer War—and by the revelations of the Recruiting Department which showed that of every five applicants for military service only two were effective soldiers after two years. So, too, a century ago this need was forced into prominence by the demand for men of sound physique caused by the great Napoleonic struggles. Peter Hendrick Ling of Stockholm (1776-1839), remembered in his own country as a poet rather than as the originator of a system of gymnastics, with his intense patriotism and literary power and love of classical literature voiced the demand in Sweden which led to the foundation of the Central Gymnastic Institute in 1812. About the same time Peter Frank (1745-1821) brought out the first book of systematized School Hygiene, "System einer vollständigen medizinischen Polizei," in which he showed the unity

of the educational needs of mind and body, the value of the ancient gymnastics, the necessity of proper buildings and proper seating. There again I introduce the question of the ancient Greek ideal, because, as I have already said, we find that all our pioneer school hygienists have gone back to the Hellenic ideal of the proper consideration of the body. In 1836 appeared the work which may be regarded as epoch-making in its influence on contemporary procedure. This was Karl Lorinzer's "Zum Schutze der Gesundheit auf Schulen"—a book which has laid down the rules which governed School Hygiene in Germany until pretty recent date. Twenty years later Dr. Cohn of Breslau, who had been a surgeon in the Prussian War of 1866, published his experience in the examination of the soldiers, and in 1869 urged the necessity of the medical inspection of children and the appointment of school doctors to education committees, while another German writer urged the forcible argument that the children of the nation should receive in the schools a consideration at least equal to that accorded to the horses of the German Army. And I want to impress upon you that fact too that it has been war and need for soldiers which has again and again brought into light the importance of physical fitness in our rising generation. In England Priestley Smith of Birmingham, following the lead of Cohn, showed the necessity of regarding the eyesight of children and of removing the adverse conditions at schools which led to defective vision. But Sweden had already led the way and school doctors had been appointed in connection with the public schools as far back as 1848. We find that Sweden had looked after school doctors as far back as 1848; it may have been further back, but I can trace it as far as 1848. In 1880 the publication of the researches of Prof. Axel Key in Sweden, and those of Prof. Axel Hertel of Denmark in the physical conditions of children exercised a considerable interest both in Scandinavia and Germany and ushered in the modern systems of medical inspection which are in vogue to-day. *Pari passu* with this advance has been the growth of general measures for procuring the general health of the community from preventable disease. Prof. Axel Hertel visited Berlin in the same way as I am here to-day and produced such a profound impression on the educationists in Berlin that he laid the foundation to the modern German system of medical inspection. It was thus the awakening knowledge of the high degree of physical unfitness which gave the necessary impetus to interest in School Hygiene

and it became more and more apparent not only that the child must be the centre of ameliorative activity, but that medical inspection of school children could alone give the data necessary for reform. This awakening was evidenced by the various Commissions which have been held in different countries to determine the question of the physical fitness of the inhabitants. The first of these important commissions was that by Baron Manteuffel in Alsace-Lorraine in 1882, and in Denmark in the same year; there was also a commission in Sweden in 1888. In the last 20 years in England we have had seven different Commissions dealing with the same question. The last Commission was that on physical deterioration, which led to installation of medical inspection in our English schools (1904). (Danish Commission 1882, etc.)

The history of the movement thus shows that medical inspection is based upon two assumptions, each of which is a counterpart of the other, viz.: (1) That it is a part of the general police duty of the state to safeguard society by the prevention and suppression of infectious and contagious disease, the best means for which lies ready to hand in the existence of elementary schools which may be regarded as a sort of clearing house for infectious disease. This may be termed the *selfish* basis as opposed to the second or *altruistic* assumption that it is the duty of society to initiate constructive schemes for the amelioration of the conditions for successive generations. This altruistic conception is that to which common sentiment is steadily turning, and in the last twenty years there has been a notable shifting of the centre of gravity of our public health system from the consideration of environment to that of the individual. The public health administration to-day is less concerned with the external environment, with sewage disposal, water supply and what not, than with the problem of infant mortality, prevention of tuberculosis and similar questions of personal hygiene. In this general public health service medical inspection of school children is destined to play an increasingly important part, not as a specialized science existing outside and independent of other health activities, but as an integral factor in the health-service of the nation. The school stands as it were midway between the home and the state, and it is through the school that the efforts and energies of the public health administration can best be directed to reach the homes of the people. I may say it was in Wiesbaden that the first modern

system of regarding a child rather than the environment as the centre of interest came into being.

This complete interdependence and solidarity of the various problems is most clearly proved by the results of medical inspection of our schools, for when we come to examine the children of school age we find that an exceedingly large group of defects discovered there are due to conditions antecedent to school life, which if they are to be prevented must be attacked before the children enter school. It is the conditions of the home, the personal hygiene and habit of its inmates, those conditions which are productive of the infant mortality rate, the tuberculosis incidence, etc., which have determined the physical unfitness of the school child, and it is only by attacking these adverse circumstances in the home that any amelioration can be achieved. I will read you a quotation from the writings of Sir George Newman, Principal Medical Officer of our English Board of Education, to whom medical inspection in schools and the inception of our system in England owes so much.

“It is clear, therefore, that in the age-periods of childhood after infancy we reap a harvest of disease for which we have sown during the infancy period. First, we get many of the actual diseases of infancy continued into the late periods of childhood; secondly, we get the sequelæ of those diseases in the survivors; thirdly, we get a continuance, varying in degree and extent, of those causes and conditions which in infancy yield our high infant mortality rate and in the long run bring about a degeneration of race. If in this way we take a long view of the matter we shall see that an improved physical condition of the children of the nation depends upon our grappling with the problem, not only from the beginning, or, in other words, with infant mortality at its root, but grappling with it as one problem. It is idle to attempt to purify a stream of water if its source be a polluted one, except by purifying the source. It is idle to patch up children of school age if we first make them all pass under damaging and devitalizing conditions at the beginning of their lives. As it has been well said, ‘The greatest effect upon the life capital of the population is produced by the infant mortality.’”

There is a proverb which we hear very often which is full of profound truth, “The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world,” but sometimes there is also a sad truth in the paraphrase which has been coined. “The hand that rocks the cradle wrecks the

world." All effort must be directed to insure that the conditions under which the children pass the earliest years of their lives are such as make for a sound and a healthy childhood. To do this we must get to the homes of the people, and to use Charles Kingsley's phrase we must go "down to the mothers" and establish a direct and personal relationship between the school Medical Department and the parent. It is only in this way that we can solve the difficulty, for no measures to improve the condition of the individual child, however advantageous to the child himself, can be permanently satisfactory if they do not preserve the independent responsibility of the parent. We must do all in our power to nourish the tender plant of independence. In other words, in all attempts at amelioration the family and not the individual must be regarded as the unit. It is idle to make periodic gifts of clothes or to give a daily dole of food to ill-clad and underfed children unless we make an effort to probe to the bottom the cause of the poverty which underlies and produces these conditions. Herein lies the great value of the services of the School Nurse, who, by her tactful advice and friendly encouragement can do far more than any official fulminations from the Health Office. I understand you have a system of school nurses here and I see by the papers what an admirable number of visits have been paid in this city, and we find that in England the work of the School Nurse is one of our most valuable assets in the work. Herein, too, lies the great opportunity which is afforded by Guilds of Mothers, prospective mother's clubs, infant health protection societies and other agencies of a similar character.

I need not here dilate upon the more strictly medical aspects of the work of a Medical Department of a Board of Education. The examination of the blind and deaf children, their classification into total and permanent cases and into partially blind and partially deaf cases, each with differing needs for appropriate teaching; the examination of tuberculous children, of children crippled by physical defects and unable to attend the Elementary School except, if at all, at irregular intervals; and lastly, of that group of children which from a social point of view is of such profound importance, the children, who by reason of mental defect are unable to profit by the education provided, and who in after years form the main population of our workhouses, our penitentiaries and our gaols.

I am very glad to see that in Ontario you have an Act passed

in this last month for providing special classes for the mentally defective children. I may have an opportunity of pointing out the work they are doing in Birmingham in this connection, but I may say here that we have classes in Birmingham for 800 mentally defective children and had I 1,200 places in the special schools I should be able to fill them.

The classification of the children belonging to these various groups and the choice of the form of education necessary for each is essentially work for a school medical officer, for a right choice depends upon a knowledge of the physiological needs and capacities of the various types. There is still another aspect of the question to which I should like to direct your attention. It is that the system of medical inspection of school children in England is a national, compulsory and uniform system under the direct control in its broader principles and outlines by the Board of Education, Whitehall. I may point out in that connection in England, although we have been late in coming into the field, we have by our National Compulsory system many advantages over the local system which is in vogue at present in Germany. In Germany every town makes its own regulations for its medical inspections. There are no Imperial regulations; the result is, although there are 360 odd towns which have appointed school medical officers in Germany—that is in all the large towns—the work is not in any way systematized. There is no central officer or office which has broad control. I think in England we have really touched the right thing by getting, as I say, not a local system but a National and Compulsory Medical Inspection, under a central office, which can form a bureau for the spreading of information, etc., and can guide and direct and bring us all into a definite line; so the ultimate value of our reports is of far greater value than the isolated report of say Wiesbaden, Frankfurt and Berlin and so on.

In Birmingham we do our best to get the parent present at the examination, and the course through which I go is this: I have a number of assistants. Before any medical inspection takes place in our schools I visit the school myself, provided I am not otherwise engaged with pressure of business, or if I don't I get one of my chief assistants to visit, and I explain exactly to the teachers what I want to do, which children I wish to be examined, and also I frequently get the upper children together and talk to them about the importance of medical inspection; how valuable

it is to them, how valuable it will prove for them in the future, etc. If I cannot do it myself I get the teachers to do it. By that means we secure the hearty co-operation of the parents. In Birmingham, for instance, the mother or guardian has been present at the medical examination in 83 per cent. of the cases and since I took over the work two and a half years ago 70,000 children have been examined. Well, now, that is most surprising to me because one has to remember that in England, where we have at the present time a great deal of unemployment and destitution, the mother in a very large number of cases in Birmingham is the wage-earner of the family and she has been prepared to give up half an hour or so of her time to come to the school to be present at the examination of her child, and I think that is really one of the best testimonials to the success of medical inspection that has come before my notice. We do our best not to keep them waiting or to waste their time. Here, however, we are confronted with a new difficulty. The inspection reveals a very large number of defects which are remediable, but which if neglected cause a serious loss of educational and industrial efficiency—defective vision, deafness, running ears, adenoids, chronic nasal discharge. How can these best be remedied? The co-operation of the parent is essential but only too often they are ignorant of the means whereby such remedies can be obtained. Take for example defective vision, which can be corrected by suitable glasses. Last year in Birmingham 2,600 children were reported to me as having one-half or less normal vision. And the year before it was still larger, something like 2,900 children, all of whom were therefore really in need of spectacles. It is idle for us to tell the parent that glasses must be obtained, we must go further and tell her how to obtain them; or if adenoids are present we must explain how to proceed to obtain the necessary treatment. Herein our teachers in Birmingham give a splendid example of useful work.

Now, I have in my hand here the balance sheet of what we call the National Union of Teachers' Children Charities Fund. This fund had been in existence for some twenty-five years, and every year they gather together a sum something like \$2,500—it varies from year to year, but that is under the estimate of last year—in the better classes of schools by entertainments, etc., where the children of the moderately well-to-do attend. That money is funded and is utilized by a committee of the teachers for helping parents in deserving cases. The teachers themselves know the

character of the homes very largely; they are able to estimate the degree of need and are able to do a most valuable work. Last year they gave out in notes for our hospitals and dispensaries—I don't know that your system of hospital notes is quite the same system as our own—but they gave out over 1,100 notes to the General Dispensary, 900 notes to the Eye Hospital, over 480 notes to the Ear and Throat Hospital, over 300 notes to General Hospital, over 60 notes to Dental Hospital, in addition to helping to send a number of children to one or other of the convalescent homes. All this is work entirely done by the teachers as an addition to the work of our medical inspection. There is one other means whereby this friendly advice can be carried out—the inauguration of Children's Care Committees consisting of persons willing to give up some of their time to visiting the homes of children found to be defective and to extend a friendly hand. The value of Care Committees is limited only by the number of workers obtainable.

The life of the mother in the homes of the poor is singularly monotonous and the visit of a member of a Children's Care Committee forms a welcome break in the monotonous round of household duties. There again may I explain what we have in Birmingham. Among other agencies we have The Women's Settlement, similar to the Settlements you find in Boston and Chicago and New York, etc. The Women's Settlement is in one of the poorest parts of our city and after medical inspection has taken place the list of the children we find to be defective is handed over to the Warden of the Women's Settlement. Her visitors, who are mostly students of social questions taking a two years course at the University, visit the home and try to probe to the bottom of the reason of the poverty and destitution. They are able, you see, to extend a friendly hand to help to an extent, and to see how far the home is really in need of help and care, but still more important than that, they are able to preserve the spirit of independence in the parent because they are able to get the parents to make proper contributions, if not to help themselves, at least to this fund. We always try to say: "Now, if we are going to help you you must help by putting a penny a week or twopence into our fund to help somebody else." By that means we try to insure that no one gets something for nothing. At least we make an attempt that something shall be given in token of gratitude for the help that has been given. That, as you see, is work that can be extended enormously and is work which like the quality of

mercy "blesseth him that gives and him that takes." A system of Care Committees grouped around and in intimate relationship with the School Medical Department will be of enormous value in what we call in England "following up" the results of medical inspection and will secure that a large proportion of the defects found will be remedied within a reasonable time. The value of this work will be apparent when the child reaches the age when he must leave school to find himself in the great world of labor. Here where "the race is to the swift and the battle to the strong" he will be seriously handicapped by any physical defect which has remained unremedied. In the German schools one of the most important functions of the school doctor is the part he plays in connection with the choice of employment. Being in touch with the local labor exchange he is able to advise the children about to leave school as to the choice of employment suitable to their physical capacities. I may say what I saw in Mannheim and Strasburg. The children there leave school at a particular date. It is not so with us, for our children leave on the day they reach the age of fourteen, but I understand you have this system in Ontario. About a month or two before the children leave school the doctor visits the school with lists of the places vacant for young lads or girls, as the case may be. He then examines the children and says to the first one: "What are you going to be?" And the boy says, for example, "I am going to be with my father as a shoemaker." And he says, "No, you have a weakness in your lungs, what you want is to go into the open air. Here is a chance to get into a market garden." Another boy says, "I am going on the railway." "No, you are color blind; you want to get into something else. Here is a chance to get into the electrical work," and so on. I need not dilate upon the enormous importance of work of this kind—the guidance of the youth to avoid the blind alley occupations which in England at any rate are the cause of so much unemployment and destitution. In Birmingham we have established a Juvenile Employment Committee in connection with the City Education Committee to help in work of this kind, upon which I have the honour to serve as an ex officio member.

In the somewhat disjointed remarks which I have made I have attempted to show the historical growth and development of school Hygiene which has culminated in the provision of medical inspection of children attending the public elementary schools and to show some of the broad principles upon which it is founded and

some of the possibilities of its usefulness. I have attempted to show that the School Medical Department may serve as the centre of a great nexus of ameliorative agencies which it can knit together into one organic unity of personal service.

Some may perhaps see in these provisions danger of the destruction of parental responsibility and of handing over to the state duties which of right belong to the father and the mother. This fear I have tried to show rests on no sure foundation. Whatever facilities for a healthy and happy childhood are provided by the state, and it has been well said "for the young the best is only just good enough," the ultimate success of these provisions depends upon the homes and character of the people. This success will only be secured in proportion as we can touch and ennoble the homes. And then perhaps at last we shall find the real fulfilment of the prophetic words of Charles Kingsley, words which he himself regarded as amongst the most true he ever wrote:

"Down to the mothers, as Faust went, we go to the roots of manhood,

Mothers of us in our cradles, of us once more in our glory;
Newborn, body and soul, in the great pure world which shall be
In the renewing of all things when man shall return to his Eden,
Conquering evil and death and shame and the slander of conscience,
Free in the sunshine of God, and the Dayspring of God go before
us."

THE PRESIDENT: It has been said that we in Ontario were slow. We were slow to introduce manual training and domestic science. I heard last evening in the Library Association that we were slow in introducing trade schools and forms of technical education. It is said that we were slow in introducing medical inspection into our schools. This possibly may be true, but slowness has its advantages. We can profit by the experiences of others. Now, it seems to me that such a practical address as this is just what we need in beginning our work in medical inspection. Some of our cities are taking up the work. Some have begun to take it up; others are thinking of taking it up and addresses of this kind will be most helpful. Dr. Auden will continue the subject to-morrow afternoon. The lecture will be in the Physics Building, because he wishes to give you a clearer idea by lantern slides what is being done. I trust you will all be there on time so that

the work of the afternoon will not be broken into by coming in late. He will also, I understand from the Minister of Education, visit some of the cities of the Province—at least the normal school centres—and deliver lectures there in connection with the Normal Schools.

The meeting closed at 5.30 for luncheon.

DR. COLQUHOUN'S ADDRESS.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, APRIL 19TH, 1911.

Mr. Chairman, Dr. Auden, Ladies and Gentlemen:—As the Chairman has just said, I have been commissioned by the Minister of Education to give in a few words an official greeting to this Association. Dr. Pyne has asked me to assure you that nothing but the most peremptory injunction would have prevented him from being present in person to wish you all success and to give you the official greeting of the Department. My duty, therefore, is very briefly and very easily performed. But before sitting down, ladies and gentlemen, and before hearing the lecture from Dr. Auden, I would like to say that this Association is unique in the professions of this Country, because it affords you a very useful and a very powerful organization which is not officially recognized by the State, but is of the greatest assistance to those who have to administer the educational interests of the State, and I think you are aware that the present Minister of Education has on many occasions borne testimony to the useful work which you have done in the public interest in the matter of education. And it seems to me as the years go on you must continue to exercise this very important though unofficial influence in connection with education. I observe on your programme at a later period of the day there is a Report from the Committee on Superannuation. There is possibly no subject which your Association has to consider that has more interest for me than the question of putting on a sound basis the superannuation of the teachers in this Province. It is probable that you will consider that in some form or other and that you will hear from Principal Scott and his Committee the projects that are now engaging the attention of the Government. Now, speaking for myself—and in no way authorized to speak by the Minister—I would like to make if you will permit me this one suggestion, that when you come to deal with this question you will remember that Governments and Legislatures as well as pupils require to be educated and that you will do well to continue the existence of your Committee in order that all the facts in the matter may be kept before both the Government of the day and the general public. If it seems well

to you in re-appointing your Committee, you might add to it two or three advisory members who would represent the general public and the general interest in the carrying out of this scheme. I shall not detain you any longer, except to say we are delighted to have with us in this country, as the guest of the Government of Ontario, Dr. Auden, of Birmingham, a distinguished graduate of the University of Cambridge and one who is well known for his work in the medical superintendence of the City of Birmingham, and as I do not wish to stand in the way of a very delightful lecture, I will now once more repeat the good wishes of the Minister, in behalf of this Convention. (Applause.)

THE MEDICAL CARE OF CHILDREN IN SCHOOLS.

GEORGE A. AUDEN, M.A., M.D.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Yesterday afternoon I dealt in my remarks with the more general basis of school hygiene; more especially with it from the sociological standpoint. I tried to represent it as an intimate and integral part of the general public health service, and to show that its sphere of usefulness will become of more and more increasing importance as the years go on. This afternoon I wish to direct your attention more directly to some of the more recent practical applications of school hygiene to the actual work of education. Now I am not certain that the difficulties we meet with in England and on the Continent to-day are precisely those which at present are yours in your social organizations, but I am convinced that sooner or later the problems that trouble us in our great cities in England, unless they are foreseen and carefully guarded against, will be repeated in Canada, too.

With these few preliminary remarks, I will proceed to what I have to say in connection with education.

Now, in a letter from the great Saint Bernard of Clairvaux to Archbishop Murdac of York, he tells him to go for his texts to the rocks and woods. He says "*Experto Crede*—learn from one who has himself learnt by experience. You will find something more in the woods than in books. The trees and the stones will teach you lessons which no master can give you." (*Epistola cvi.*).

You will remember that Shakespeare speaks of "Finding tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in everything," and perhaps you will also remember the story of the dry-as-dust commentator, who found there must have been some mistake—that, of course, what Shakespeare meant was that stones were found in the running brooks and sermons in books. That is exactly what we have done in education in England. We have forgotten that education is not altogether and solely a thing of the buildings, bricks and mortar: we have forgotten that as Pestalozzi says, "*It is life which educates*," and it is only now that we are beginning to feel our way back to that ideal which we lost generations ago: that is, we are learning to appreciate the value of less formal methods of

education. I fear in England our conception of a school is still that of a building with a certain area of playground—generally smaller than larger. Now, I think our real conception of the school should be a playground with a school building in the corner.

I won't put on the slides until later, but that's the burden of my remarks this afternoon.

Now, those who have been in our crowded cities— and I think that none of you who have not been to the Old Country can realize in any sense the terrible amount of destitution, of ill-nutrition and under-development that we have in our large cities. Take the city which I represent—Birmingham. In some of our schools at least 70 per cent. of the children are under-fed and ill-clad. And when you consider that in the present Birmingham we have 98,000 children, and very shortly after I go home I shall have about 145,000 children under my immediate care, you will see that the problem is an immense one. Now what is the physiological basis upon which depends all good development of the body and the development of the mind concomitant with it? It is essentially the question of nutrition. It is idle to attempt to put education into a child if that child's general nutrition is such that it cannot profit by the education given. That is one of the first mistakes that we made in the Old World, both in Germany and in England, in imagining that all we had to do was to provide a scheme of education and that every child would then be able to gain an equal advantage from it. It very soon became apparent that there were a large number of children who were unable to profit by the educational curriculum offered, *e.g.*, the deaf, the dumb, the blind and the crippled. We quickly found, of course, the complaint and that it required a special line of educational treatment. We less quickly found that it was necessary to provide a special form of education for those children who by reason of mental defects were unable to profit by the education we gave them. And accordingly we had to make provision for those children. But it gradually came upon us that even in those children who were fully able to go to school there were so many who were out of the schools for long periods because of ill-health, and it became necessary to have some system whereby we could keep a record of those children for school attendance purposes or, if we were going to have them at school at all, it was necessary that we should make some

provision for them. Now, we often find that some of the greatest movements—I think perhaps the greatest social movements that have ever occurred have always come from the individual enthusiasm and interest of one single person. Many of you will remember how it was John Woolman, a young grocer's assistant in New Jersey, who, when in the act of writing a bill of sale for a negro slave, was struck with the enormity of what he was doing and it was through the movement that he initiated then that ultimately the abolition of slavery became a fact. It was by the work of an unknown, nameless school-master in Copenhagen that the present system of taking the children of that city from the town to the country owes its inception. This head teacher in the year 1863, when cholera had ravaged Copenhagen, found so many of the parents of children in his school had been stricken that numbers were left orphans. He considered the best way of dealing with those children and determined to get them sent temporarily, at any rate, to the village from which he hailed. To-day there are—I should say, every year there are—20,000 children carried out from Copenhagen into the country for a month's holiday, a month by the sea.

I will give you another instance because it is very germane to the question this afternoon. The originator of the scheme of holiday camps which is so interesting and does such valuable work in Switzerland, France and elsewhere, Pastor Walther Bion of Zurich, was transferred to a cure up in the mountains; he noticed there the marked contrast between the rosy faces of the children in his new cure with the pale faces in the slums of Zurich, which he had left. He therefore made arrangements that as many children as he could make provision for in his new home should be transferred for a month or six weeks or two months every year, and by that he laid the foundation to the present system of holiday camps, which is one of the most interesting developments of school hygiene in Switzerland.

One of the most useful functions of the German school doctor is the close connection which he has with the fresh air agencies. And, as you know, there are many municipalities—certainly in all the larger municipalities in Germany—which have some form of institution to which they can send their weak and their debilitated children. This year Germany has established a large sanitarium on the shore of the Baltic for children who have

suffered or who are suffering from whooping-cough, in order to make sure that those children may be thoroughly restored to health before they return to school.

All this I want to point out is being done for the ailing child. Well, we know the results; how valuable the effect is and how these children come back restored to health. But what about the influence on the sound and healthy children? If these things are done in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry? If such a marked improvement takes place in the sick and delicate child, surely the so-called healthy child has a right to be considered in the same way. And therefore what I want to show this afternoon is the possibility of working our schools on these lines, and in accordance with the laws of nature, and I hope to show you some slides of the open-air schools or Recovery Schools that have been established in Germany and in England. Now, I said before that nutrition is the great thing to be regarded. If you go to a sanitarium for persons suffering from tuberculosis, you find that the first thing that the physician aims at is to improve the nutrition. If you go to visit Mimico Asylum, you will find that the physician's first attempt to improve the mental condition of his patient is to improve the nutrition. Now, that is the secret of success. Improve the nutrition of your children and you will give the maximum amount of educational good to the child and you will make better citizens, because, as I tried to point out yesterday afternoon, the ideal of education is the production of effective citizens, and in this ideal we have to regard the body, the mind and the character, as equal in their need for education. Now, when we come to examine the children in our schools we find that some of them are weakly and rickety and some of them come from homes where there is somebody suffering from active tuberculosis; we find some suffering from St. Vitus' dance; we find some suffering from enlarged glands or hip disease or disease of the spine or from one of the many diseases which are closely associated with conditions of poverty and of over-crowding. Now, what are we to do with those children? The problem can only be settled by making such an alteration in our educational curriculum as will meet the demands of the doctor, the patient and the State. The State says "this child must be educated." The parent says, "Yes, but the education must be such that the child can gain profit therefrom," and the doctor says, "Yes, it may be educated, but in the process of the edu-

cation the child must be so regarded that its health does not suffer." Therefore you must get some compromise between those three factors, and the open-air schools such as I show you on the screen, very shortly, is the result of that compromise. Dr. Neufert, of Charlottenburg, Councillor of the municipality, was the first to point out these principles. He got the municipality of Charlottenburg, to agree to the foundation of what are known in Germany, as *Waldschule*, schools of the woods, or "forest schools," and so satisfactory have been the results that Berlin is now arranging to have several of these *Waldschule* around the city. Munich, Dresden, Elberfeld, and several other towns in Germany, are proceeding in the same way, but I think perhaps the movement has taken root even more quickly in England, for we shall have this year at least a dozen municipalities which have established open-air schools. But what I want to point out is that, if we cannot bring the mountain to Mahomet, we must bring Mahomet to the mountain. We cannot take all our children to open-air schools, but we can bring the open air and the satisfactory hygiene conditions, under which our open-air schools are carried out, we can bring these to the children in our crowded cities, and with that I will ask you to take note of the first slide on the screen.

Now, with the first slide I want to teach by analogy, if I may. This is one of our tuberculosis sanitariums for tuberculous persons in Birmingham. You all know the principle upon which a tuberculous patient is treated—open air, plenty of it, plenty of food. Plenty of air, plenty of food and plenty of rest, these three form the tripod of treatment.

We get all the sunshine we can in here. The whole of the side is open, as you will see in the next picture; the patients as they lie in bed or in their chairs are exposed to the full fresh air and sunlight, and at the same time they have only a minimum amount of fatigue. There I show you the picture of the beds as they lie; you see that the whole place is open. Now, here is the open-air school at Bradford, and you see it is built on the sanitarium principle.

Here you have your class-rooms; that is a resting room and also used as a class-room. These I may say are movable shutters, shutters which can be put down to prevent the wind; here is the play-room, here is the dining-room and again you see the wind being kept out by the shutters, the day this was

taken. That, you see, is built absolutely on what we may term the sanitarium principle.

And here again is a single pavilion from the sanitarium buildings, which one may for a moment imagine is a school-room. Now I say we may imagine, because in Birmingham we are now building through the generosity of a private donor, what will be one of the finest open-air schools in the world. But we are building the class-rooms completely separate from one another, thus making them identical with the small pavilions in a sanitorium. I said that fresh air and rest were two out of three of the great things to promote nutrition and here you will see the children lying asleep after their mid-day meal. You will find that the majority of these children will sleep for two hours and they will wake up refreshed and prepared to do a certain amount of work. You will ask, "How do you get the children from their homes to the Open-Air School? Well, of course, you cannot expect that those weakly, delicate children, such as we take out to these schools, walk there, often a considerable distance. I may say we take them out on the street cars. We run a special car in the morning and pick up the children in the town and run them out. In the summer they may get there at 8 o'clock, and we find many arriving there at 7 o'clock, and they do not like to go away when seven o'clock arrives at night, when we take them back by special car in the evening. This next slide shows, if I may call it so, a sort of hybrid institution, for these children in a sanitarium are actually suffering from tuberculosis and are receiving some education at the same time. It is the Meathop sanitarium maintained by the Westmoreland County Council, and the educational work which they do is very valuable. The education of the tuberculous child is a very important problem, because one of the great defects of our ordinary educational system is that if you exclude a child who has some evidence of tuberculosis from your school you lose sight of that child and he is out of school perhaps for several years. Very often the child is kept away from school on a doctor's certificate; it may be quite right for a doctor to say that this child should not go to school, but what is that child to do when he reaches the limit of school age, if he has not been taken in hand so as to enable him to acquire such education as may render him to be self-supporting. His weak physical nature entirely prevents him from taking up manual work; his lack of education pre-

vents him from undertaking mental work, whereby he can maintain himself. There is thus a very serious danger that he cannot support himself and, often when thrown on his own resources, sinks down and down and finally succumbs to the disease against which he had previously offered successful resistance. It would seem not to be the highest form of help merely to make an attempt to cure the child in order that he may drag out a miserable existence in the poorhouse. I am speaking here of tuberculosis of the lungs. Now, some people, you will find, get a terrible fear of tuberculosis, and moreover will say, What right have you to take a child who gives evidence that he is suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis into an ordinary school amongst his fellows? Well, you need have no fear because we find more and more that the number of children who show evidences of pulmonary tuberculosis is singularly small in the children of school age, and that these do not disseminate infection in the majority of cases. We find, for instance, in Birmingham it is under 1 per cent. If you try these special reaction tests, such as Calmette's or Von Pirquet's, you will find that a large number of children react. Perhaps it will be possible to explain what I mean by this reaction. A little scratch is made with a needle and then a little tuberculin is rubbed upon it. If the child has received any infection of tuberculosis at any time that child will react. In other words, there will be a little vesicle around on the spot where the scratch has been made. If the child has not received any previous infection from tuberculosis bacilli that scratch goes through the ordinary course that the ordinary scratch does and does not show any reaction. Well, now, what do we find? We find as we go through the years that an increasing number of children react, so that at the time we get to twelve years of age we get between 90 and 100 per cent. of the children giving a positive reaction; that is to say, between 90 and 100 per cent. have at this time of life received an infection of tuberculosis. In other words, we may from this point of view regard tuberculosis rather in the same nature or category as measles, one of those inevitable infections of youth. A German writer has said very truly that tuberculosis is a disease not of poverty but of ignorance. You will find that tuberculosis is essentially to be found associated with overcrowding. What the children want, and what all people want who have tuberculosis, is more elbow-room, and if you segregated your adult tuberculous patients so that they ceased to contaminate the other members of the family you would find in a

very few years you could reduce the existence of tuberculosis enormously. In other words, tuberculosis is not a disease of the school but a disease of the home. Now, that is a comforting thought, because it shows us that, given the liberal air space, the ventilation, etc., that we are given in our new and modern schools, the chances of infection are practically gone. I only point that out because we have a lot of hard fighting to maintain our position in reference to receiving children who show signs of tuberculosis in our schools, but I am convinced that these results prove the correctness of our attitude in the matter. Now, I said that it was not a disease of the schools, but there is one thing to which these reaction results point; this is that the infective material is ubiquitous. Now, there is a very common habit and very unsatisfactory habit, *i.e.*, that of spitting on the sidewalks. Some time ago in Birmingham we examined one hundred consecutive spots of spittle from the sidewalks, and out of the 100 we found in eight at least the bacilli of tuberculosis. This is a micro-photograph of tuberculosis bacilli from the spittle from the streets. Now, that is an unsavory subject, but it has its own lesson, for the dissemination of the bacilli is one of the dangers which we find also in the home. I have at the present time a list of 264 children who have been examined and re-examined by myself because my assistants and colleagues have believed them to show signs of pulmonary tuberculosis. Well, now, in at least three-quarters of these cases I have found that they have been in active, close contact with a sufferer from acute disease. You will find it over and over again; the mother will tell you, "Oh, yes, I lost a daughter last year from consumption," or, "Father is down now with consumption." If we can avoid the dissemination of bacilli we can do a great deal to stop the infection. Now, even if a child has a tuberculous lesion in the chest you do not find that it expectorates, and therefore, if there was no other reason, I would feel quite content in receiving such a child for its education into an elementary school. Now, we have dealt with fresh air, and we have dealt to a certain extent with sleep. But there is food. Here are some slum children attending the open air school at Sheffield, receiving a little soup in the middle of the morning. They are taken, you see, from one of the poor parts of Sheffield, and the conditions of Sheffield are very like those in Birmingham. One of the great advantages that an open air school has is that it lays stress upon the communal side of life as distinct from the individualistic life. The life of

an ordinary school room is much more individualistic than communal. Children, especially the neglected children of the slums, have an extraordinary lack of the communal idea: they are essentially individualistic, and it is of the greatest possible importance to teach them the social amenities of life, and that you can do well by an organized meal such as a mid-day meal provided in an open air school. We are doing this in our own school for cripples, and we have been able to make the meal quite a self-supporting institution. I feel very strongly that at all costs we must foster the independence of the parent. We make it a rule that the parents pay at least something, a penny a day or a halfpenny a day, towards the food. Mind you, with that amount, as I shall point out when I come to our cripple schools, we actually can make a profit, which we devote to buying special apparatus for the children, notes for the hospitals, special surgical boots, trusses, etc., and therein I think lies a very useful lesson. Here, again, is a slide of one of the London Schools, Montpelier House School, and you can see the tablecloths, etc. In the homes from which these children come the tablecloth is not known nor is it, in fact, a common thing for children of the class from whom these children are drawn, to sit down to a meal. Certainly, speaking of Birmingham, amongst our poor the children never sit down to a meal. The food lies on the table and they take "a piece," as we call it in Staffordshire, when they want it. If you can induce them to recognize the sense of comfort and decency that a tablecloth supplies, and if you can put thereon, when you have got your school garden, some of the flowers growing there, you can make it a quite nice dinner, and can cultivate the artistic sense and so again help to preserve the educational balance between things physical and mental and things artistic.

Here, again, they are sleeping under the pine woods at Charlottenburg. These are the little shelters to which they can go if they like. Now, people will say, "This is all very well for the summer, but what about the winter?" Well, now, originally when this school was opened they thought it would be impossible to keep it open through the winter, and the first year of opening it was closed in October. The second year it was kept open, and it happened to be a fine open season and they spent their Christmas there. Now the school is open all the year around, except January and February. In Bradford, which has its school on a high upland plateau—and any of you who know Bradford know how cold the wind can be—keep their school open all the year around, and I

shall certainly hope to keep the school open in Birmingham all the year around, because we find there is actually a higher percentage of attendance during the winter months. The children seem to flourish far more in the colder weather than in the hot weather, and I think that is probably due to the fact that cold air, provided you are giving them sufficient food, and provided the children are sufficiently clad, is the finest tonic that you have. I heard Dr. Neufert, at the International Congress last year, describe these schools. He said: "We strong men pick out these weak, delicate children and send them to the open air school, and in the winter we go there with our coat collars turned up, our fur-lined overcoats, and find that we cannot get these children even to put their jackets on." It is a most extraordinary sight to see these children playing in the snow without taking any extra precaution to put on their outer garments.

Now, that is the chart which shows more eloquently than any words of mine what is the result from work of this kind. This is a chart showing the average weekly gain or loss of children who are attending the open air school. Here is the average of the increase of children from the same social stratum. You find here you get a rapid increase, but if you close your school what happens? The children go back to their unhealthy surroundings and down comes the curve. When they come back to school it goes up again. Well, now, I quite agree you will argue that it is all very well, but what is the good of it at the end? But we find a very large number, quite 80 per cent., are set on a higher plane of health. You have a quickening of their nutrition, and they seem to be able to push along and grow and increase from the date they were sent to the school. The most important guide which we really have is the percentage of attendance after we have transferred them back to the ordinary school. We find that these children, who are practically all very irregular in their attendance before they go to the open air school, when they return, as they have kept up their education, are able to go back into their ordinary school and maintain their place there, are in a much more satisfactory condition of health and are able to continue at school with far greater regularity. Now, I said we must bring Mahomet to the mountain. This is in one of the schools over which I have charge in Birmingham, in one of our worst slums. We have there introduced one leg of the tripod. We have introduced "sleep." In our crowded area many of the children come to us even before

three years of age. As you may know, our legal age for attendance at school is five, but the children may be admitted at three. In some of the schools we even admit them before three; that is, I have known where the teachers, knowing the parents, have admitted them at two years and nine months, and more than that, at one of our schools in a very impoverished area, on Monday afternoon, when the mother is engaged in the washing, I have known two or three babies brought to that school premises for the afternoon, the boys both keeping their attendance and acting as nursemaids at the same time. This form of hammock which we use is a very simple thing that can be applied in any school. These are children attending an elementary school in a slum district. The head mistress of the school is an extremely capable woman who takes a great interest in this thing, and I may say it owes its inception to her and not to me. I got her to take a very careful record of all the times in which the children went to sleep. We stationed a teacher who just marked down when Johnnie is asleep, and Charlotte, and Mary, and so on, and then we tot it up and see what the average time is. The average time of sleep in the winter months is sixty-three minutes. Eighty-five per cent. of those children sleep regularly. The average number sleeping in that room is twenty. Occasionally we have had to wake up ten children to go home at half past four, but they have kept their school attendance, and they have profited quite as much as if they sat and listened.

This slide shows the games in Charlottenburg school: and the children have a certain amount of organized games and of course a great deal of unorganized games. When they come to the school in the morning they are provided with a pair of clogs: and when they go home put on their shoes and stockings.

There are the physical exercises by the children in the open air school in Sheffield. It is infinitely better to do your physical exercises out in the open air, rather than in a class-room.

My next slide—those are children from that same slum school from which I showed you the sleeping children. This is a scheme which we have only just begun last year, and I think it has a wonderful future. These are lads taken from the poorest of these schools to one of our big, open parks in the neighborhood. They come from our poorest neighborhood. They bring their lunch or there is a little fund which the school gets together to pay for any lunch if any children really cannot afford it. They are out

the whole day. They carry out the whole school curriculum under the Board of Education regulations; it is made to count as school attendance and that I think is one of the very important points.

We have here a sunny day and the children are in the sun. No child can fail to be struck by the beauty of a fine summer day, especially when taken from the sordid surroundings of the slum to the open field, and this has a powerful influence for good.

Here is a class from the same elementary school doing their ordinary formal arithmetic in one of our local parks.

You will say, "This has very little to do with Toronto or with Ontario," but let me tell you the experience of Birmingham. Where some of our worst slums stand to-day less than a century ago were market gardens; and what is our experience to-day? Unless your quickly growing cities foresee what may be in store and take warning in time the result will be what we have found to our cost in England—a huge growth of slum area, which is unsatisfactory from a moral standpoint, from a physical standpoint or from a health standpoint; and it is only by taking time by the forelock that you will be able to deal adequately with these problems before they become too great.

Now, I jump to another point to which we are paying some attention in Birmingham. You may know that all through the Continent the shower bath forms an integral part of the school curriculum. So far back as 1812 in the public laws of Denmark the necessity for bathing is shown, and in Norway a school shower bath installation must be placed in every school, and in France, Sweden, Holland and Germany the shower bath is part and parcel of the school curriculum. In England we have not got so far, but what I want to point out is this. In a very large area of our large cities it is impossible for the children to get a bath. They live in a crowded courtyard, probably served by a single tap in the middle of the yard from which the whole number of houses have to get their water. It is quite impossible for them to obtain a sufficient amount of warm water for a thorough wash, and therefore the children go without washing very largely. Now, there is nothing which produces a satisfactory healthfulness so much as having a proper regard for cleanliness of the skin. I mentioned Denmark a little time ago. One of the early chroniclers of England gives as one of the great reasons why the Danes were so unpopular in the 10th century the fact that they washed themselves and did their hair and therefore proved too formidable as

rivals with the native Anglo-Saxon beauties, who preferred them to their own people with unkempt locks and unwashed bodies. The name "Laugerdag" was the name for Saturday, *i.e.*, "the bath day" in Icelandic. People will say that is all very well, but you have your municipal swimming bath. But you will find for practically six months the swimming baths are not used, and if you argue on that principle you must argue that the children need not take a wash until the summer; at the same time it must be pointed out that a swimming bath is not the same as a bath for cleansing purposes.

Here is a bath room which has been installed in one of our newer schools. The bathing is not compulsory, but almost all the children take the bath; in fact, if there is one punishment worse than another it is to say the child shall not have his bath that week. It helps to keep order for the rest of the week.

That again is another bath. Here you will see that they are waiting to have their shower bath and they are washing before they jump into the swimming bath. That is a general rule in the German baths. For instance, at Strassburg they have a magnificent bath there, but the children have their cleansing bath before going into the water.

In Amsterdam they have two large centres to which the children resort from those older schools where there is no bath installation. They can give one hundred thousand baths every year in each of these establishments, and it is an extraordinary thing to see the way in which those children enjoy their weekly baths.

I spoke some little while ago about the cripple. A cripple is a problem of a different character. If it is worth while making an attempt to look after your cripple, it is worth while doing your best to educate him. It is idle to try to help a cripple when the time is too late for him to get an education; he is thrown on to his own resources without an education and with an enfeebled body. Therefore, in most of our progressive towns in England we have a system of cripple schools to which we bring our cripples by means of ambulances. In Birmingham we have eight ambulances which go around and bring the children in the morning and we have, of course, nurses to look after them, and I or one of my colleagues am up in the school every week and the improvement which is brought about is often extraordinary. But I want to point out these schools must be carried out on convalescent home lines; it is perfectly possible to carry out the same principles for

health whether in your sanitarium or open air school or crippled school or convalescent home; all are merely dealing with one and the same problem. But there is one point to which I wish to direct your attention with special emphasis and that is, if a cripple is to be entirely self-supporting he must become such an excellent workman or she must be such an excellent workwoman that the excellency of their work compensates for the physical disability. For instance, it is no good making the cripple girl into a milliner unless you can make that child such an excellent milliner that the very excellence of her work will demand a good wage, and that we find is a point of the utmost importance which must be kept clearly in view. Without this guiding principle the problem of what to do for the cripple child will remain unsolved.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., PH.D.

Permit me to express my most sincere thanks for the great honour you have done me in electing me to preside at this important meeting of the Ontario Educational Association.

Our attention at this jubilee season is naturally directed to the past. Mingling our imaginations with our memories we are prone to idealize its achievements. Our reflections have frequently a tendency to induce discouragement, because at times they suggest that the ideal has been left behind, and that advance must consist in the retracing of our steps. But these roseate visions of the past have their value. If instead of dwelling upon them as expressive of what is gone, and to be regretted, we judiciously select from them what is significant as a means of interpreting and planning to meet new situations, we shall find in them the elements which, if utilized, will determine our future progress.

Now, considering what the past is revealing of the needs of the future, and taking into account the wealth of experience it is rendering available for immediate service, what is the chief educational problem to-day demanding solution?

The answer given by each of us will depend upon the field of his work, his knowledge of conditions, or his dominant interests.

None, possibly, has a grasp sufficiently comprehensive to give a universal answer. I, as an inspector, naturally conceive the problem as one in practice. On the theoretical side, the thinkers of the past have supplied us with an abundance of material which we are utilizing in forming our ideals. From my point of view, the problem of the immediate future is to overcome the inertia of tradition, and to begin to realize more fully in our practice what we universally accept as ideal in our theory.

But is there any opposition between our ideals and our practice? In so far as this address has a set purpose, it is to make this opposition felt, not as a defect to be complained of, or remedied by regulations, but as a personal strain to be relieved by individual endeavour.

Does this opposition exist? Take any phase of the problem; for example, the accepted notions of the educational process itself.

These are formulated in a variety of ways. To me the biological conception appeals, because education appears naturally as a phase of growth. When we say that the child grows in character we use no metaphor. We often speak of him as plastic material in the hands of an artist, with complete power to mar or to transform into an ideal of beauty; but the child is not clay in the hands of the potter, to be formed or fashioned to his will. He is a living being; and changes in his character, like those in all living things, are determined, not from without, but from within, through growth tendencies implanted by the Creator. An acorn contains within its embryo forces which, under proper environing conditions, will lead to the development of the full-grown oak. Through tendencies inherent in its nature it obeys the laws of its creation. So it is with the child. His development is self-determined. He cannot be forced by the external pressure of the will of another, into a mould. He *grows* in character. His education is a process of self-realization.

Doubtless you will agree with me, not only that this is a true conception of the process of the child's development, but also that it should be accepted as a working basis in the organization of schools.

We are not lacking in theory, but is there any opposition between our practice and this theory? Where shall we find the school organized to present the environment which will ripen in fullest balanced maturity the powers for service bestowed on the child by the Creator?

Take another aspect of the problem. Accepting, if you will, the biological conception, along what lines should normal growth take place?

I set aside for the time the question of physical development. It is being discussed by our visitor from England, who is much more competent than I to speak of its importance and methods.

We are agreed that the child should develop in intellect. We are agreed also that this development should be a process of normal growth, beginning in the restlessness of his sense activities, and proceeding in an orderly way through the unfolding of the interconnected stages of perception, imagination, memory, and judgment.

While we lay stress rightly on sense perception and imagery as the basis of a rich intellectual life, we recognize as equally important the growth of the mind in insight. The practical re-

quirements of everyday life demand the power to analyze complex activities and situations, and the ability to appreciate the possibilities and potentialities latent in their elements. But I refer not alone to the practical elements, but also the more subtle, and shall I not say more important because more universal, values manifest in the complexity of physical phenomena or social life? Tennyson suggests that the "flower in the crannied wall" holds the secret of the universe, and had we but the penetration to understand its meaning of "root and all, and all in all," we should know "what God and man is."

While it must be acknowledged that our powers of insight are dependent primarily on native gifts, yet it is also true that what we are to find in the world about us is to a very great extent controlled by our growth in experience.

The rainbow to the physicist is the interplay of ether ripples reflected from the inner surface of falling raindrops; to the artist, it is a matchless blending of colours; but to him whose deeper experiences of life have brought him more closely in touch with the Infinite, it is the bow of hope and promise.

Bryant reflecting on the waterfowl "darkly painted on the crimson sky," "pursuing through rosy depths its solitary way," sees in it something more than a bird guided by instincts through difficulties and amidst dangers, to its "summer home." He identifies it with himself, and expressed in its instincts he finds a Divine power, a beneficent and all-wise Providence. The poet in his insight is but following the precepts of the Teacher who bids us "consider the lilies of the field" and the "fowls of the air," to find in them the care of a Heavenly Father.

But the complete development of an intellectual life means more than the formation of a mind sensitive to values. It should grow in the power, not only to recognize, but in a sense to create, values. The intellectual life finds its immediate purpose and fullness in the active life. Did not the Master make it clear that the end of life was service? In this relation the intellect should be an active force in combining and projecting imagery, for the purpose of conceiving ends, of forming ideals.

I am emphasizing not simply the active function of mind in creating those higher visions, which now and then from afar, attract us to more noble endeavor; but as strongly its use in planning, from hour to hour, effective responses to the demands of the ordinary situations of life. To put it more plainly, I am

speaking of the practice, all too uncommon, of using the mind as an instrument in everyday work.

At this stage may I interject my original question: On the plane of the intellectual demands in training is there any opposition between our ideals and our practice? Our schools have been criticized because the training which they have supplied is too exclusively intellectual. But with all the emphasis placed on this phase, in what measure in the actual routine of their daily work are the schools providing the materials and stimulus for a vigorous and healthy growth of the intellect in depth of insight, in comprehensiveness of grasp, and in flexibility of adjustment to the varying requirements of active service?

But the physical and the intellectual are not the only possible lines in growth. We are beginning to understand the importance of attitudes and tendencies.

I mean by attitude on the intellectual side, interests as tendencies. We may not, either on philosophical or practical grounds, agree with the Herbartians that interest is to be sought primarily as an end in itself; but we are convinced that the tendency toward the acquisition of knowledge in varied fields, is an important correlative in all intellectual growth. The old-fashioned phrase, "love for learning," connotes a significant demand in education.

Some years ago I happened to be standing by when several members of the fourth year class in the University came up to read the examination returns which had just been posted. The first one to find his name turned away saying: "Thank God, my education is completed." The outburst, doubtless, was the temporary reaction from the stress of a heavy year's work; but if it represented in any measure a permanent tendency developed in his training, surely an important factor in discipline had been wanting in the young man's course.

On the whole, I am inclined to believe that possibly one of the strongest counts that can be brought against our schools, lower or higher, is that in our efforts for the thoroughness on which we pride ourselves we too frequently overlook the importance of the development in our students of a proper attitude toward future endeavour.

On the affective side I mean by *attitude*, moods, temperaments, dispositions, sentiments. The social value of emotional attitudes is admitted by all. If we were asked to state what we admire most in our intimate friends, or dislike in those for whom we have

no affinity, would not a description of their moods and temperaments form the greater part of our characterization? How important, therefore, to the child and to those with whom he is to associate, whether he grows to be cross, cranky, and cruel, or quiet, kind, and friendly; whether hard, and hateful, or sympathetic, and loving; whether despondent, and gloomy, or bright, and joyous.

There is a tendency to overlook this phase of training, because dispositions are regarded mainly as a matter of heredity. But the impulsive passions of children whose tempers are the worst, are at first unstable and transitory, capable of development or of eradication. The emotions become permanent only through growth in habit. Fitful and fleeting feelings in the child become moods in the youth; they grow to be temperaments in early manhood, they are fixed only as permanent dispositions in the aged.

We should remember too that emotional attitudes have moral significance. God is love, as well as light. Did you ever watch the process of a disposition writing itself on the face as it was fixing itself in the life of a child? If so, were you not observing the progressive regeneration, or the progress of the tragedy of a human soul?

On the active side, I mean by attitude, willingness. Were it not for the unfortunate significance which the word has come to have, I should use the stronger term, wilfulness, because it expresses more nearly my meaning—the possession of determination and practical force for realizing in achievement what has been conceived in ideal.

What an immense amount of energy latent in human conceptions and capacities is never rendered kinetic in useful service.

"This morn I will weave my web," she said,
As she stood by her loom in the rosy light,
And her young eyes, hopefully glad and clear,
Followed after the swallow's flight.

"As soon as the day's first tasks are done,
While yet I am fresh and strong," said she,
"I will hasten to weave my beautiful web,
Whose pattern is known to none but me."

"I will weave it fair, I will weave it fine.
And ah! how the colours will glow," she said.
"So fadeless and strong will I weave my web,
That perhaps it will live when I am dead."
But the morning hours sped on apace,
The air grew sweet with the breath of June.
And young Love, hid by the waiting loom,
Tangled her threads as she hummed a tune.

"Ah! life is so rich and full," she said,
"And morn is short, though the days are long,
This noon I will weave my beautiful web,
I will weave it faithfully, fine and strong."
But the sun rose high in the cloudless sky,
The burden and heat of the day she bore,
And hither and thither she came and went,
And the loom still stood as it stood before.

"And now I will weave my web," she said,
As she turned to the loom ere the set of sun,
And laid her hand on the shining threads,
To set them in order, one by one.
But hand was tired, and heart was weak,
"I am not so strong as I was," sighed she,
"And the pattern is blurred and the colours rare
Are not so fine or so fair to see.

"I must wait, I think, till another morn,
I must go to my rest with my work undone,
It is growing too dark to weave," she said,
As lower and lower sank the sun.
She dropped the shuttle, the loom stood still,
The weaver slept in the twilight gray.
Dear heart! will she weave her beautiful web
In the golden light of another day?

How perfectly the imagery of this simple poem expresses the incompleteness and brokenness of human conceptions and achievements. We rightly value ideals. The conception of a worthy end is an achievement in itself, although incomplete without its realization. It was well to have imaged the beautiful pattern, even if it was to be blurred and broken in the web of life.

Yet in the end, strength of character is determined by what we choose and do, rather than by what we have conceived or felt. The fullest expression of character is to be found in choice, involving as it does the selection and realization, as well as the conception of ends. Lot, in choosing the well-watered plains of the Jordan, with their attractive but enervating surroundings, instead of the rugged hills of Canaan with their altar, at once expressed his character, and determined his destiny.

During the early years of a child's growth in character, habit reigns, but when he comes to years of discretion, choice is the ruling force in his life. From hour to hour, from day to day, from year to year, he is expressing what he is, and at the same time determining what he is to be, by his choices.

May I pause at the conclusion of this discussion of attitudes to press my fundamental question? Is there here any opposition between ideals and practice?

What are we doing incidentally, or in a direct purposive way,

to transform natural attitudes of inquiry into many-sided permanent interests; what to foster growth in emotional life; what to assist children to control for useful service, native wilfulness?

At this stage the problem of efficiency is naturally suggested. Granted that the ends conceived are worthy, and the power to realize them available, may there not be a large percentage of loss in the performance?

It is not enough to possess a costly rifle, to understand its mechanism, or even to be determined to shoot. The more practical question is: "Can you hit the mark?" Efficiency demands skill. But in touching on the question of skill and its relation to intellectual training and effective service, I should be trespassing on the field of the lecturer to follow. I therefore leave it to one who is much abler than I to discuss it in all its bearings.

So far in this discussion we have been contrasting practice with theory, mainly in their more direct relation to the development of the child. But as teachers, we have an important place in furthering this process. What is the value of our services viewed in the light of the higher conceptions of our work?

Pedagogical literature is full of descriptions of the qualities to be possessed by the ideal teacher. From time to time at our annual meetings, we have been thrilled by speakers eloquent in picturing the nobleness of our calling, its possibilities, and its rewards. But we must remember that our own personal worth is to be estimated, not by the demands of our profession, but by our ability and willingness in meeting them.

Expressed in terms of the conception of education we have accepted, what is the teacher's work? We have assumed that education is a process in self-realization. The child's growth in character is self-determined by hereditary and acquired growth-tendencies. But this growth, like that of the tree to which we have compared it, is only indirectly self-determined. The oak grows to its fullest development only under certain conditions of soil and moisture, of air and warmth. So the child reaches the end of his being only through the nurturing conditions of a proper environment. The process of his development, therefore, like all life processes, is conditional upon the interaction of growth tendencies within, and the stimuli of an environment without.

The teacher finds his sphere in controlling and adjusting the environment to the ever-increasing needs and demands of the

child. As Dr. Dewey says: "The teacher's business is simply to determine, on the basis of larger experience and riper wisdom, how the discipline of life shall come to the child." His work is to select what is valuable in the complex and varied experiences of the race, and so present it in accordance with the known principles of the child's development, that he will, through the exercise of his own powers, build up for himself an orderly world, both of knowledge and of practice. To illustrate, consider one aspect, possibly the highest, of this process, that of the growth of the child in character through choice. Here the teacher's problem is to lead the child to be conceiving for himself higher and ever higher ends, and to aid him in developing increasing power for their realization. I emphasize the terms "lead" and "aid"; because the child grows normally through free choice.

Responsibility in free action is necessary to strength and independence of individuality. The teacher cannot form ends for his pupil, much less force him to realize them. The aims which have a vital attraction for him must be the creation of his own active powers. The teacher may supply the best possible conditions for wise choice, may train his pupil in habits of deliberation, may suggest reinforcing motives, may call attention to results, but in real choice the pupil must choose for himself. How narrow is the teacher's field! Yet, on second thought, how wide! What infinite possibilities for influence in selecting and presenting stimuli to call forth the most significant responses in life's critical situations.

Let me press for the last time, but now in its personal application to ourselves as teachers, my question of the opposition between the actual and the ideal. In knowledge, in skill, in willingness, in sympathy, in power to inspire, in sense of responsibility, how do we measure up to these conceptions of our opportunities and duties?

You will observe that I have refrained from describing or estimating our present practice. We are possibly too prone to dwell upon defective conditions, especially when they are outside the field of our own personal work. My intention has been, not even by implication, to belittle the work of any, but rather, since advancement can be made only through the personal effort of each of us in his own sphere, to suggest a contrast, with the purpose of awakening discontent, as an incentive to progressive improvement. The feeling of satisfaction which accompanies the

completion of work well done, is our most immediate reward for achievement; but when we come conscientiously to compare what we have done with what our reason teaches us would have been better, we are possessed by a restlessness of discontent which is the natural spur to renewed endeavour. The old feeling of satisfaction, in subsiding, remains with us as a more or less permanent sense of power.

In this manner, and in this spirit, do we, I believe, best conserve the Past. As we listened last evening to the recital of the achievements of those who have so ably carried forward the work of this Association during the last fifty years, we rejoiced in our history. May the feeling abide, as an inspiration in entering on the new and wider fields opened up to us by their efforts; may even the mistakes and imperfections of the past but show us the possibilities of the future, and quicken in us a more determined and enlightened purpose; and may we, in our vaster achievements, have revealed to us an ever-widening horizon in outlook; for the attainment at any time of our ideals would be an evidence, not that we had attained perfection, but that we had ceased to have a Vision.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND CULTURE.

BY A. ROSS HILL, PH.D., LL.D.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—When I began teaching school in Nova Scotia over twenty years ago the literature I read on educational questions came chiefly from the Province of Ontario, and particularly from Toronto. And as one always has a certain feeling of at-homeness with anything he learned in his youth, I fancied that I had some knowledge of the educational situation in Ontario still. And when I had the opportunity furnished me and the honour offered of appearing before you on this Jubilee occasion I accepted with great interest and enthusiasm. I must confess after getting here and facing the audience and hearing references to the work of the last fifty years—although it is a little less than that since I first heard of the work of this Province in education—a certain feeling of foreignness came over me and a certain feeling of depression that after all I do not know much about the definite and concrete problems that you are facing in educational work in this Province to-day. That has been relieved, of course, much by the opportunity of renewing acquaintance again with President Falconer and others, and as I sat here to-night I was interested to find that the person to open the exercises was Principal Gandier, whom I used to listen to from one of the Halifax pulpits when I was a college student there. I fancied, however, from certain statements that I had read, and I found it more or less confirmed by some suggestions in the paper that you have just listened to, that in Ontario you have one problem just now that we are facing in the various states of the Middle West. I found it in Nova Scotia when I returned to visit my friends there; that is the question of Vocational Training, especially in our public educational institutions, in the public schools and high schools, and so I have ventured to take as the topic for discussion this evening Vocational Training and Culture.

Education has its problematic features in both the elementary and highest phases, and, in general, its problems arise from the necessity of adjusting educational practices to correspond with the new economic, political and general social conditions of the people. This correspondence is rarely complete in any age, for the very machinery of the educational processes shows a certain

unwieldiness and inertia that make it difficult for it to adjust itself rapidly; and when the new adjustment is started the same inertia may produce equal maladjustments in the opposite direction. It is because I think we are in that sort of situation now—we have started some of the new adjustments and are hardly conscious of the outcome—that I think it worth while to consider this question. We at this time, of course, as at any time, must face an educational situation that is in the main not of our own making. Former educators have contributed to it and general social development perhaps more. We may not be able as individuals to greatly modify it, but we can take stock of its tendencies and its elements and perhaps throw some influence to help control the particular direction. This topic, this phase of our educational activities now, vocational training, affects elementary, secondary and higher educational institutions. I find that there is a demand for vocational training in colleges of Arts and Science in the American Universities at least. This was forced upon me more markedly the year I was engaged at Cornell University, when we spent a good portion of the time with our Arts Faculty in discussing to what extent we should recognize any vocational aim on the part of our students who are candidates for the Bachelor of Arts degree. It shows itself in arts colleges not only on the part of those students who wish to pursue what might be called a combined course, but also on the part of students who look forward to business careers and who are taking a college training as preliminary to that. We find the problem pressed upon us in the secondary schools on behalf of all those who do not go to College but expect to enter business or industrial pursuits, soon after leaving, if not immediately after leaving, the high school; and in the elementary schools—we in the Middle West at least—hear much about the teaching of elementary agriculture and the co-relation of all instruction with the activities of the environment. The call for vocational training at all of these stages seems to be loud and persistent, while conservative minds urge that it is the function of the schools and of the colleges to train men rather than farmers, teachers, mechanics or merchants—in short, to use their own language, that culture is the fundamental purpose of educational institutions. The issue seems to be well defined and the lines of cleavage very sharply drawn. Probably a proper insight and perspective will enable the new and old to assimilate and enable us to establish some harmony of educational efforts. Perhaps a

few words then may not be out of place with reference to the weakness and strength of the two positions.

Let me first dwell upon the weaknesses of the position of those who, like myself, had in secondary school and in college only the advantages of the strictly academic training. I should like to remind my friends of this class that culture after all is not an element that inheres in any particular subject matter; that it is an attitude of mind and of life, and is not a certain mental content; that culture, therefore, is based more upon the mode of approach to any and all forms of subject matter than it is upon the particular subject concerned; in fact that culture is a by-product of the educational process and is not the direct object of the pupil's pursuit, or, perhaps one might almost say, of the teacher's efforts. Aristotle has pointed out to us that pleasure is the bloom of a good life and is the accompaniment of ethical conduct; and so one might say of culture, that it is not the direct object of search on the part of students, even college students, and still less so of high school or elementary school students, but that it is a by-product of the educational process when that process is wisely conducted and accomplishes its proper end.

Furthermore, I should urge that the vocational motive on the part of the pupil is an entirely worthy one. It does not mean necessarily that the student is looking forward to making money and is studying the subject matter with a view to securing greater remuneration for his efforts after leaving school than he would otherwise be able to secure. It means usually a desire to secure greater insight into and efficiency in the work that the man is going to do, whatever calling it may be that he is looking forward to; greater control over its processes and the machinery perhaps that is involved in carrying through its processes; and it is simply the desire for excellence in the majority of pupils; a desire to do well what they are going to do and understand the function they are going to perform. It is also, as I say, a thoroughly worthy motive for a student to look forward to understanding his calling and to being able to achieve something worth while in that which is his chosen field. And in the same connection I wish to urge that the lack of motive in much of our work in school and college is perhaps its greatest weakness. The whole problem virtually of teaching is the problem of securing motivation on the part of the students. Without that there is little real progress made, and without that there is little likelihood of culture resulting.

The real spirit of vocational training I take to be the recognition of man's active nature as well as of his contemplative. It has been referred to in the address of your President this evening. If I may be pardoned a word more along this line I should urge, furthermore, that truth seeking for its own sake is rather a late phase of mental activity and comes with the mature rather than the youthful student. It is a rather rare thing, I believe, with young men, and the majority of us, even in our adult years, do not seek truth from the desire for pure intellectual satisfaction, but we seek truth to guide our actions. Professor James has put it a little too strongly when he says man is first and last and always an active creature; but surely the active part of our nature is very marked and in the main we are led to think because we need to think in order to act; and so within our educational efforts we might as well at the outset reckon with the fact that the youthful student and elementary student, and perhaps even the college student, are not directly interested at the outset of truth seeking for the sake of pure intellectual satisfaction, but that they would be led to seek truth more satisfactorily if they could see some outcome, some bearing upon life's activities. It is the form of the practical, it seems to me, and the breadth of view, which determines the cultural value, and truth, therefore, pursued for its own sake is perhaps no more cultural than truth that is pursued for the sake of what one can do with it. I had some experience in teaching psychology as a college student to students who were not supposed to know as yet—at least, I was not supposed to treat them as if they knew their special callings after leaving college—and after some six or eight years of teaching psychology in that way I became a professor of educational psychology and taught psychology to prospective teachers. With the latter class I relied, of course, on the vocational motive. I assumed that they were interested in the subject because of the bearing they expected it to have on their teaching work, on their insight into educational problems; and in doing so I found that I had a leverage which I perhaps had more or less missed before. Furthermore, I did not find the work less cultural for those students from the fact that they were looking forward to using their knowledge of psychological principles in the solution of educational questions, and that from time to time we did turn it to direct use in the course of our class room discussions. That knowledge taught not directly for its own sake but because of what it may mean to one is capable

of yielding cultural results might, I think, be clear from the result of the old Athenian education, and also from the results of our colleges in colonial times in New England. The old colonial college of New England is often thought of by people nowadays as an institution for liberal culture primarily. Now, that was not the case. The original colleges of the American colonies were not professional schools such as we know to-day, where they study law, medicine and theology, but they were vocational in a sense. They afforded the only sort of professional training for the ministry and law and medicine that was then, and the curriculum was adapted to accomplish that end. Of course it was indirect, involved in the end, which I shall refer to in another connection. In short, not to dwell too long upon this phase of our subject, I should say that culture is a matter of insight into and appreciation of modern civilization and of responsiveness to its needs and problems, responsiveness to the demands made upon the individual, and whatever form of instruction or training tends to furnish that insight and to stimulate social responsibility has a right to lay claim to being cultural in its influence. So much seems to me, in a general way, in favor of the recognition of vocational training, or perhaps I should say of utilizing the vocational motive.

Now, let us turn more particularly to some of the dangers that may be involved in accepting that general lead and following it quite fully. I should say, in the first place, that the very exactness and definiteness and precision in instruction that we can afford in shops, and in bookkeeping and in typewriting, and so forth, while excellent for purely disciplinary purposes, these very things are liable to produce narrowness of view and lack of perspective. The very closeness of the application of our mental process to the solution of concrete problems that may be proposed in the shops or laboratories carries a danger such as I have mentioned. The student of engineering in our engineering schools is an example of this, and if the work is not well supplemented by other scientific and humanistic training, he lacks perspective and lacks that insight which I have referred to as culture.

There is also a possibility and perhaps a strong tendency to teach a certain hodgepodge of facts and recipes of a purely practical character when we get fully started on this notion of educational and industrial training. Let me illustrate by reference to commercial courses which I have studied, some in the State in which I have now the honor to reside. In one of the very best High

Schools of the State there is a commercial course which I have gone over with some care, visited the classes and discussed it with the principal. It seemed to me, as I go over it, that this principal has taken the method and the ideal of the strictly private, so-called commercial college, and that the work does not give a commercial education on the whole. That is to say, the student is spending a great deal of time on learning to take dictation, on learning to use the typewriter, and on learning to keep books: he is not, so far as I can see, securing commercial insight, which is one form of social insight; he is not securing that, but he is just learning to do certain things. Now, merely learning to do a thing has decided limitations in the matter of even intellectual development, and it has still more serious limitations when you come to consider the social insight that it is liable to produce; and I claim, in so far as a teacher is spending his time in instructing a High School pupil in details of stenography and of bookkeeping and of typewriting, that he is not even giving a commercial education. If you examine in contrast with that the commercial High Schools of Europe you will find that they give practically no attention to subjects of that sort. You will find in the German commercial schools that they study the elements of political economy, the nature of the materials of manufacture, and get some knowledge of the process of manufacture, but practically all of the work involves insight into the materials and processes of manufacture and of commerce; in short, involves insight into commercial life and gives the ideals of a commercial life; giving the student a respect for business as a profession, giving him some opportunity to grow and think about business problems. Whereas in the United States our commercial courses in the High Schools are in the main like the ones I have described, they are giving a certain technique which an individual can use immediately after going out from the school, and this process, as I see it, has no basis for future intellectual growth and practically no basis of insight even into commercial conditions. I was interested in noticing that an American who visited the Liverpool School of Commerce recently raised the question to the principal, Why he found practically nothing of this sort in his school; and the principal replied that any graduate of a High School who had ordinary intelligence and industry ought to be able to learn those things for himself. I had an interesting experience myself in connection with a young lady who wished to

take up stenographic work for me. She was very well trained, a High School graduate, and had some college training, and I found out she had no instruction as yet in stenography and typewriting, and yet I was glad to make use of her if I could. I had her take twelve lessons in shorthand, and in the course of three or four weeks she went to work, and in three months she was a splendid stenographer. It simply requires patience and industry and work, does not require insight, and therefore it can be very quickly acquired, and I take it that the reply of the principal of the commercial High School of Liverpool is a sound one—that that sort of training is not the sort of vocational training that a school can best spend its time in giving, still less the college. So to turn to the point I have made, that there is a possibility and even a tendency to give a hodgepodge of facts and recipes for practical performance, instead of giving a real insight into the vocation that the student is looked forward to pursue later, it is the lack of what is fundamental and therefore liberalizing that affects much of our efforts in following out this vocational aim. In manual training there has been an ideal all the time of giving, of forcing intellectual development through the clearer imagery and the more definite solution of problems that manual training work could enforce. At the same time I find in much of it an inability to see the real significance, a tendency to spend a large portion of four years on doing lines of work which constitute virtually the same thing as learning a trade. Now, I am not going to discuss with you the question of trade schools. That, I take it, is a somewhat different thing from the general topic, and the trade school, I have no doubt, has its place, and I am leaving that aside. But I say manual training, like commercial instruction, suffers very much from this lack of perspective, from the lack of fundamental training, from the lack of insight into even its own significance, and still more from lack of insight into human motives and human problems and human life, which is the essential basis of that knowledge of mankind which is important for true culture. The most valuable practical training in the long run would seem to be secured by fundamental training whose practical significance is clearly revealed to the student. I have referred earlier to my own experience in teaching psychology and educational psychology. You will pardon a personal reference again. I might say, in the same connection, that students who have been in my classes years ago have told me afterwards that the most effective course I ever

taught them for future work as teachers was that in ethics, where I did not assume that I was teaching pedagogy, giving them instruction, teaching at all; that the application to life of ethical principles as they were discussed in the class-room had meant more to them in school room practice and educational practice generally after leaving college than had the direct practical method of teaching. The vocational motive may be used often to interest the student and thus secure on his part a more thorough study of what is fundamental and what will really give insight and breadth of view without the sacrifice of practical usefulness at all. In short, while we should look to practical instruction there seems to be no reason why we should be willing to sacrifice by the loss of flexibility and effective growth the youth's fundamental training, which should be the basis for all his future growth. Studies in history, in economics, in commercial geography, if you may use that as something different from economics—although I do not see it is different—studies in science and in modern language, can certainly all be used for vocational training, and the vocational motive may be appealed to in inducing students to study these, and later on some may find that they do not wish after going from school to use them for utilitarian purposes at all, but that they may become interested in the pursuit of those subjects for their own sake. I should urge, therefore, on general principles the recognition of the vocational motive as a normal and natural motive to bring a student to school, both High School and college, and I should not hesitate at all to use it in any sense. At the same time I should use it as a means of inducing the student, to leading the student, to a more thorough study than he would otherwise make of what is fundamental, and to deeper insight than he might otherwise get into the bearing of the subject upon life's activities and human problems generally, and thus it may, by means of the vocational motive, enlarge his vision instead of cramping it, and later on leave to him to make use of its practical details. While culture may result from the pursuit of any study properly taught, yet in the hands of the proper teacher the humanistic subjects do seem to me to lend themselves more readily to the stimulation of the social motives and to the development of habits of social responsiveness and social imagination; and no curriculum which excludes these can hope—other things being equal—to rival academic subjects in the making of men. While speaking of this in general terms, I should like also

to take up briefly the questions closely allied with it as to the advisability of having our vocational schools, especially our High Schools, distinct from our Public Schools, our general culture schools. Now, we have up in the States an experiment of this sort in connection with agricultural education of college grade. When the agriculture colleges were established through the stimulus of the national government some States made them separate institutions and others made them part of the State University, and we are able by looking back over the history of agricultural education in the United States to get some hints, I think, as to the advisability of future practice in connection with vocational education in secondary schools. The first advantage I see in the organization of them separately is that it gives such simplicity of organization and intensity of training that you get results more quickly. Agricultural colleges sprang up quickly in the United States and began to render services, and I daresay if I were travelling among farmers or even educators in Ontario and asked them what college they regarded as the greatest agricultural college in the United States, that many and most of them would tell me the Agricultural College at Ames, Iowa. That is due solely to the fact that that college was a distinct one and came into prominence early, and people have not found out in the meantime that those connected with the State Universities are doing perhaps more effective work, rendering more effective service now and promise for future serviceableness very much more than in the case of those separate; largely because of this very fact I have been talking of, that the tendency of the university association has been to insist upon fundamental work and upon work that would count in the long run rather than work which would bring prompt returns on completion of the curriculum, I say simplicity of the organization has aided them, and so it would be in connection with technical schools established separately. The lack of association of men or individuals of varied interests, that they suffer from, is liable to lead to narrowness of view. If you are familiar with the type of graduate of the separate agricultural college and compare them with the graduate of an agricultural college, a department of a university, I think you will recognize the difference without much hesitation. The separate institution is liable to sacrifice the fundamental to the direct and narrowly practical; is liable to miss perspective and is really less democratic because it tends to segregate the different classes of

the community, whereas the tendencies of the university are to bring them together and to develop a community of interest in the service of the State and Province. Where lawyers and engineers and future business men and teachers are all trained together they do secure that sympathy between professional callings that is an essential element in the unity of state and national life. Our separate normal schools, as we know them in the United States, furnish another example. There is an intensity of professional interest which cannot be rivalled among the schools of education at the universities, but at the same time the man who is just the product of one of our State Normal Schools does not have the power of growth: he does not have the culture—what we all would call culture—of the university trained teacher. I mean. I am not now referring to the subjects he knows—general human culture. He does not have the knowledge of other callings and outlook on life which enable him to render satisfactory service in the long run in the teaching profession, especially in the teaching of High School youths. So it is with practically all callings. I have, therefore, this notion in regard to this topic, that we ought to welcome the movement in favor of vocational training: we ought to welcome it in our Public Schools and not try to set up distinct vocational schools, except perhaps in large cities and under certain circumstances which I do not wish on this occasion to discuss. At the same time, we need to watch its tendency, because we can too easily lose sight of the vital significance of fundamental training and fundamental insight, and it is for grasp of problems and that power to solve problems and that power to grow which we as teachers are all striving for. If we can only teach students to do something when they leave the school, that is of minor consequence as compared with teaching them to be something and to do something better every year afterwards, and to understand what they do and to grow into the full stature of men and women and possessed of insight into and responsiveness to deep human problems and able to render service to humanity because of that insight. I have confidence in the educators of this Province that they will find a rational solution for the educational problems that now confront them along this line. (Applause.)

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

A MESSAGE FROM MUNICH.

D. R. KEYS, M.A.

Germany with all its gettings has got understanding. The German schoolmen have learnt to honor and reward their University Professors by presenting them with a Festival volume on the jubilee of their entrance to the Teacher's craft. In Canada we do things differently. We celebrate the semi-centennials of our educational associations and reward our teachers by electing them as Chairmen and Presidents of such organizations. As on a former occasion, 15 years ago, I must again express my deep appreciation of the honor which my old friends and pupils have done me in electing me to this distinguished position at a time of such special interest in the history of the O. E. A. It would have given me peculiar pleasure to take part in your meeting and greet so many graduates, pupils, and friends of the past 28 years as the occasion is sure to bring together. But life is full of renunciations and to be absent from this meeting must be one of mine.

Yet there are compensations in connection with one's absence. If one is not present at the fiftieth birthday of the Ontario Educational Association, one has seen the celebration of the ninetieth birthday of the Prince Regent Luitpold of Bavaria. If deprived of the pleasure of sharing in the Semi-Centennial banquet and listening to the speeches in Toronto, one has enjoyed the dinner and heard the single speech in honor of the Prince, given in the quaint and beautiful old hall of the Altes Rathaus in Munich. If it is sad to miss meeting many old friends at home, it is gratifying to know that one has found friendly companionship in the hospitable "City of the Little Monk."

Moreover our life abroad has been full of experiences such as help to stimulate love of country and develop patriotic pride. At

the outset of our journey it was encouraging to find Toronto colleagues lecturing to large audiences in Columbia University, New York. On the steamer it was delightful to be greeted cordially by a former Prince's prizeman, now Professor of Anatomy in an American University, and the most popular member of the ship's company. In Paris we found our Toronto graduate, Dean Schofield, representing Harvard at the Sorbonne, as he had already represented the first of American colleges at Berlin two years ago. In London, at the Town Planning Conference, one had only to mention Canada to gain immediate attention and a most sympathetic hearing. In Vienna one heard of a Toronto man representing the great railway interests at an important commercial conference and a medical colleague attracting great attention by a scientific demonstration.

Visits to many institutions at Lausanne, Zurich, Vienna, Leipzig and Munich, and attendance on many courses of lectures in several universities have left the impression that the favorable reports of the Carnegie Institute on the work done in Toronto would only find additional confirmation if its commission had been extended to take in the universities of Europe. Everywhere the educational authorities recognized the name of Toronto as standing for good work and solid scholarship.

Nor were negative causes of satisfaction lacking. During a visit to London one saw and heard much of the sad plight of the English school teachers. So great was the distress caused by the want of positions and the over-stocking of the profession that placards were posted up in Oxford Street, warning parents to keep their children from entering a profession in which starvation only awaited them. The contrast with the situation, both in Ontario and in Germany, was strongly marked.

It was highly interesting on the other hand to hear of the state of affairs in Elsass-Lothringen. Here the German teachers are obliged to live apart, being ostracised by French society as white Canadian teachers in negro colleges in the South have been treated for a generation past by the southern chivalry.

But apart from the method of comparison so dear to the modern scientist, there have been other subjects of interest in German educational affairs during the last six months. Church and State in turn have started controversies, some echo of which has no doubt reached the shores of Lake Ontario. The *Modernisteneid* has raised the greatest turmoil in Bavaria since the days of Dr.

Dollinger. The *professorensbreit*, said to be ultimately due to the appointment by the Kaiser's personal influence of a conservative professor of political economy, has not ceased to agitate the University public since this gentleman challenged another of the five Berlin professors of the subject to a duel, and the Committee of the Faculty to which the matter was referred sent him to Coventry in consequence. The whole affair shows the strength of the conservative element in German university life. Sixteen years ago the president of a German students' duelling society told the writer that by 1900 the student duels would be over. So far from this being a true prophecy the fact is that the German philological societies, both classical and modern, have now put themselves under the protection of one or other of the duelling corps and thus illustrated the far-reaching character of the reaction to a medieval barbarism.

Into these matters of controversy, however, interesting as they would doubtless prove, I prefer not to enter. It is the part of wisdom to look for our neighbors' virtues rather than to pride ourselves on our superiority by considering their defects. So let us rather turn to a subject which may help us to understand the higher ideals of the most advanced German teachers and also be of especial interest to Canadians at the present moment. Munich has many claims to distinction, as capital of Bavaria, as center of the Wagner cult and seat of the Prinz Regenten Theater, as possessing the greatest of German art galleries and the best arranged popular museums in the world, as the second University town in the Empire with seven thousand students, nearly one thousand of whom are foreigners, as the best example in Europe of what far-sighted skill in town-planning can do to beautify a national capital. But from the standpoint of the educational reformer its highest distinction is the admirable system of Continuation Schools which has been built up during the last ten years under the direction of Dr. George Kerschensteiner.

This gentleman, whose visit to America was the subject of a Toronto editorial some weeks ago, has shown a rare combination of theoretical and practical ability. In his fondness for philosophizing he is a representative German; in his power of working out theories practically, of arousing the enthusiasm of business and industrial leaders, and of gaining their financial and personal support in applying his plans to actual conditions, he rather resembles some of our modern American pedagogical reformers.

After winning a prize for his work on "The Education in Citizenship of the German Youth," he was appointed in 1900 to apply the views he had expressed in this essay to the system of Continuation Schools in the city of Munich, and his success has made Munich a Mecca for educational pilgrims from all parts of the world. When one considers the material he has had to work with and the comparatively slow development of the plans which have been in full operation only since October, 1907, one cannot refuse a tribute of praise to the results accomplished.

Before entering upon the discussion of these results, let me give a brief account of the previous treatment of technical education in Germany and on the continent generally. By the close of the 18th century the guilds, which had been the conservators of the technical arts and crafts since the middle ages, had lost their grip and nothing took their place, except in France, where the church had set up elementary schools in nearly all the communes. Frederick the Great of Prussia had also, by his regulation of 1763, required the master-workmen to give their apprentices four hours a week schooling if they were lacking in the needful knowledge of reading, writing, and religion—a German variation of the three R's. For this purpose Sunday Schools were instituted, an example followed in Bavaria in 1777. These schools are still in use for purposes of secular training, and are therefore no bar to Robert Raikes' claim as founder of the religious Sunday School system, which plays so great a rôle in America at the present time.

Of technical training there was here, of course, no question either in Prussia or Bavaria. This training had first begun in Austria about 1760, by the sending of experienced masters in cotton and silk weaving through the land. Thus the *Wander-Unterricht* (itinerant instruction) as it was called was first instituted, so greatly extended to-day and so familiar in Ontario agricultural education. In 1803, a Bavarian law directed that working schools (*Arbeits-Schulen*) should be set up in connection with the ordinary schools (*Lehr-Schulen*). But these early efforts being permissive and not obligatory had little effect, and it was not till the foundation of the numerous Polytechnic schools (Prague, 1806; Vienna, 1815; Berlin, 1821; Munich, 1827, etc.), that the Government's aid to technical education became really fruitful. These institutions were all modelled after the *Ecole Polytechnique* in Paris, and about the same time (1828) Prussia

began to organize its provincial trade schools of a strictly technical character. They lost this character, however, 50 years later (1878), by their conversion into *Oberrealschulen*, and it was only the other day (March 29th, 1911), that the Minister of Trade Eydow introduced a measure on the obligatory continuation school into the Prussian House of Representatives. Thus Prussia oddly enough has fallen behind not only France, England, and Austria, but even Saxony and Bavaria in the matter of technical education. In the latter countries the great development in German manufacturing industry that followed the formation of the Zollverein in 1834, and the unification of Germany in 1871 (Free-traders may enlarge on this point), brought with it the necessity for improvement not only in technical but also in commercial and agricultural education. Technical and Trade Schools and Commercial and Agricultural Continuation Schools (*Fortbildungsschulen*) have been established and the latest development of all is the Business University or *Handelshochschule* as it is called in German. Of these there are now six, the youngest having been opened in Munich last October and numbering in its first session about 500 students.

Continuation Schools for girls began in Stuttgart in 1861 and in 1862 the first German Women's Business College was founded in Munich. It has nearly one thousand students this year. Since 1803, as already mentioned, girls had been obliged to go to Sunday Schools an hour or two a week for three years, after leaving the Public Schools at 13. Later, however, in 1894, optional Continuation Schools for girls were opened in Munich, an example followed by Breslau, Berlin, and Leipzig. These schools, in the words of Dr. Kerschensteiner, "afford a real training for the future wife and mother." In Munich they give six to ten hours' instruction daily in household economy, and are attended by about 2,500 pupils. There is also an optional Trade-School for girls with about 300 pupils.

Before dealing with the special subject of the obligatory Continuation Schools for boys, a few words about the Preparatory Schools of Munich may be relevant. The *Volks-Schule* or public school is obligatory for boys from six to fourteen and for girls from six to thirteen. The number of pupils is 70,000 for a population of about 580,000. These schools are for all classes and are free. Most of them have Kindergartens for children from three to six, attendance on which is voluntary and must be paid

for. Upon the public school follows, for all boys and girls who attend no higher school, the Continuation School (*Fortbildungsschule*), attendance on which is compulsory on all boys during the whole of their apprenticeship up to their 18th year, and for girls during at least three years. These schools are free. The Continuation school for boys gives 8 to 10 hours' instruction weekly, that for girls only three hours. But for girls there are also the optional Continuation Schools already mentioned as well as an 8th Class in the Public Schools with 30 hours' instruction a week. There are in round numbers 9,000 pupils in the boys' Continuation Schools and 7,500 in the girls', as well as 3,600 girls in the optional schools, and the 8th Class. There are thus over 20,000 pupils in these Continuation Schools. In addition there are 10,000 pupils in the higher boys' and girls' schools in the city, corresponding to our Collegiate Institutes (7,000 boys and 3,000 girls). Between the 6th and the 18th year there are therefore 100,000 children in the Public Schools of Munich, being 18 per cent. of the population, and 93 per cent. of those between six and eighteen.

THE EXTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

The 9,000 boys at these schools are divided between the 54 technical (*Fach-*), and the 12 general Continuation schools. The latter are for the pupils (about 1,100) who are not yet in a regular trade or who belong to the ranks of unskilled labor. The 7,500 girls at the obligatory schools are distributed in 40 different buildings. They all receive instruction in household economy. In addition to the 54 obligatory technical schools for apprentices, there are optional technical classes for journeymen and master-workmen, attended by 2,500 pupils, over 18 years of age. For every trade with at least 20 apprentices a special technical school is arranged. Trades with a large number of apprentices such as machinists, locksmiths, cabinet-makers, bakers, butchers, hotel-keepers (including waiters), have each several schools at their disposition in different parts of the city, so as to shorten the school journey. Munich covers perhaps half the area of Toronto and has a much better car service. Only the 1,200 commercial pupils are brought together in one centrally located building. The individual trade schools are divided among the other six Technical School buildings so that allied trades are brought together. The butchers' school is in connection with the city abattoirs. Six of the classes were

still carried on in public school buildings in 1910. Among the different handicrafts represented are the following: the figures showing the number of pupils in each case:—Glove-makers, 17; wood and ivory cutters, 12; chimney sweeps, 20; hack drivers, 24; barbers and wig-makers, 155; hotel keepers and waiters, 291; confectioners, 92; musicians, 68; dentists, 73; jewellers, gold and silver workers, 127; stucco workers and sculptors, 43; glass, porcelain and enamel painters (85); commercial classes, 1,025; scribes and chancery clerks, 43.

The other forty classes include all the industrial occupations of Munich, which claims the title of the art capital of Germany, and points in confirmation of the claim to the Kaiser's gift to the city of the Schack gallery of paintings, and to the selection of the Bavarian capital as the site of the German National Museum.

The general supervision of these schools is entrusted to a board of nine directors with Dr. Kerschensteiner at its head. Each school has its own principal, to whom a committee of Master Workmen is usually assigned, who provide the raw material for the trade processes, assist in planning the courses and selecting the technical teachers, oversee the practical instruction, take part in the examinations and help the advancement of the school in every way. Every school has likewise a board made up of the principal, a member of the city government and three masters of the trade. This board looks after the affairs of the school and in particular takes charge of the attendance. Every apprentice must spend either one whole day or two half days of his six working-days in the Trade School. In some trades his pay does not suffer thereby. But most of the trades allow no pay for the day at school. In the 54 schools there are about 530 teachers, of whom 110 are employed exclusively in the trade schools and 74 are for religious instruction only. The yearly cost of the obligatory prentice trade schools and the optional journeymen schools is about 900,000 marks (\$225,000), exclusive of the cost of the buildings. This means 80 marks (\$20) per annum, for each pupil as compared with 93 marks (\$23.25) per pupil in the public schools and 200 marks (\$50) per pupil in the secondary schools. The Bavarian Government pays half of these expenses. The girls' Continuation Schools, both optional and compulsory, cost 400,000 marks, or \$100,000 per annum, all of which is defrayed by the municipality.

THE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOLS.

The principal subject in every school is the practical instruction with one third or one half the hours per week. Next in importance comes drawing and arithmetic. Nothing is drawn that is not constructed in the workshop and nothing is constructed that has not been previously drawn. All processes of construction are worked out mathematically, both in plan and in cost. Closely connected with the practical instruction is the study of materials, of tools and of machinery. All these the pupil learns to know by his practical work. Where the processes require a scientific knowledge of Physics and Chemistry, in order that the pupil may learn to know the reason for his manner of working and be able to try new processes, he is given the special laboratory training that he needs for such a purpose. The great object of the pupils' technical education is not the production of showy articles but the training of his mind to take a joy in careful, thorough and conscientious work, and to receive an inspiration to new efforts through confidence in his own ability. For his moral training he has an hour a week in religion up to sixteen years of age, and afterwards the German, which gets an hour a week through every course (and in several trades two hours, and the Civics are supposed to help his ethical development. The civics (*Staatsbürgerlicher Unterricht*) is made a very special feature of the work in every trade school. From the history of the pupil's own trade he is led to appreciate and understand the close connection that exists between all classes of the community and the individual's rights and duties in the commonwealth. By uniting the scholars in common tasks especially in their last school year they are trained to consideration for others and devotion to a common purpose. Of their health, care is taken by special training in hygiene and gymnastic exercises, especially on Sundays and on holidays.

Thus far Dr. Kerschensteiner, to whose annual reports I am indebted for this brief account of the organization of the schools, which will make his name immortal, at least in Munich.

These reports are themselves a good example of the thoroughness, care and pride in one's work which the author would inculcate in the Munich mechanics. They give a complete account of each of the 54 "Fachschulen" (special trade or technical schools), and of each of the twelve district Continuation Schools. This includes in each case a sketch of the organization of the school.

with the names of the committee in charge and of the teaching staff, and notes on the libraries and collections of raw material; a statement of the fees, if any (usually limited to cost of materials), the subjects, hours and days of instruction; statistics of attendance, showing the religious belief, birthplace, parents' occupation and number of absences; and in conclusion the history of the school year, the whole forming an example of artistic workmanship, such as I do not remember seeing in the form of a school report.

To illustrate from as simple a trade as possible, let us see what is required of the chimney-sweeps. These little blackamoors are a familiar and striking sight in all European cities, as they hurry along with their ladders and ropes behind the master-sweep with his black stove-pipe hat and blacker face; and they always excite the sympathetic attention of the American abroad, whether in England or on the continent. In Munich they require a three years' apprenticeship, during which time they must attend the Trade School two afternoons a week and on Sunday forenoon, eight hours in all. Their subjects are: (a) Religion; one hour a week for two years. The course is prescribed by the Archbishop or the Protestant Consistory; (b) Business composition and reading, two hours a week for two years and one hour for the third. One notes with interest that lectures are given by both teacher and pupils in connection with the use of the school library and that dramas and comedies are studied as an antidote to the detective story and the dime novel; (c) Arithmetic, an hour and a half a week for two years, taught in connection with household economy, questions on ventilation, the use of alcohol, the hygiene of heating and the study of civics.

The explanation of these rather curious prescriptions seems to lie in the fact that great importance is attached to the tabular form of statement.

(d) The study of life and civics (*Lebens und Burger kunde*). The course, which covers one hour and a half weekly for the first two years and one hour a week in the third, gives a year to the duties of each of the three classes: apprentices, journeymen, and master-sweeps. In the third year the special work includes the political and economic development of Germany; the imperial constitution, the tasks of the Empire, social legislation, trade and intercourse in modern times, Germany and the world market, our colonies, the significance of the consular offices; the individual a

part of the whole. (e) A study of heating with trade calculation, two hours a week in the third year. The study of the different kinds of stoves and heaters, of fuels, of combustion, smoke, soot, rust, chimneys and their dimensions in relation to different fuels. (f) Technical drawing, two hours a week for three years. This course seems intended to impress on the sweeps the importance of their calling as coadjutors of the firemen. Their drawings are simple representations of the building and police requirements in regard to the chimneys of Munich with special reference to their cleaning and their drafts. (g) Special course for chimney-sweeps. This course, of two hours a week for the third year only, is also largely devoted to the study of fire and police regulations, as well as to the use of tools, the necessary book-keeping, the history of chimney-sweeping and the organization of the sweeps. It treats further of insurance against accident and sickness; bills of exchange and cheques. The ominous inferences that may be drawn from the last entry I leave to the imagination of writers like De Queux. What wonder if, after such a training, the master-sweep insists on his full title of *Herr Schornsteinfegermeister*!

Most of the schools have a four years' course; that for waiters and hotel-keepers is only two. These two years, however, include French as a compulsory and English as an optional language, each taught two hours a week. For both languages, a long syllabus is given. One understands the stress that is laid on a conversational knowledge of the languages and the special attention paid to the orthography of bills of fare, but one is puzzled to account for the particular reference to the parts of the domestic animals, (*Haustiere*) in French. Perhaps the author has taken a certain passage in Le Sage's *Gil Blas* too seriously.

There is not a little humor in the 334 pages of the report, but it does not lie on the surface.

The philosophic mind, on the contrary, is everywhere apparent. Thus, to cite but one example, in the course on horses, for hack-drivers, we find the three yearly classes taking up: in the first year, the horse individually (*das Pferd an sich*); in the second year, the horse as the servant of man; in the third year, the horse at his work. The coachman must also study among other things the automobile, and the proper methods of constructing and caring for streets, one of the arts that have made Munich famous.

This last sentence suggests one of the most remarkable facts

in connection with the whole system. Among the scores of trades represented there is no mention of the most extensive industry of Munich and the one for which it is as famous as Milwaukee itself, the brewing of beer. That it is not due to any desire to preserve trade secrets would appear from the extensive and detailed requirements in the technical wine and cellar course for coopers. Possibly it is intended by this touch of mystery to throw into greater contrast the exceeding clearness of the whole report. But it is time to leave the report and describe my experience in visiting one of the schools in actual operation. In contrast to the chimney-sweeps, I decided to inspect the classes for bakers' boys. By the kindness of Dr. Kerschensteiner a permit was obtained without difficulty and I spent two hours in listening to a lesson on Chemistry, and inspecting the excellent apparatus in Physics and Science in the Public School on Louisa street, at which the young bakers get their first year's course. It should be remembered that, though under the same municipal organization as the public schools, the Continuation Schools are under a quite distinct management, and as a rule held in separate buildings, specially adapted to this work. Mr. Stolz, the teacher, was giving a lesson on oxygen to a beginners' class of about 35 boys from 14 to 16 years of age. The experiments were watched with great interest, some of the pupils assisting in them, and all grouped about the table more like a social gathering than a class. The discipline was perfect and the answers to questions showed that the boys understood fully the nature and objects of the experiments. A few enquiries elicited the information that these boys had gone to their work in the bakeries at 10 or 12 o'clock the night before, had worked all night baking, and had spent the morning hours from about 7, or in some cases earlier, in distributing bread to shops and customers. Then after their dinner hour they had come to this class for the afternoon, remaining till four o'clock. They had six hours a week of schooling the first two years, and seven hours in the third and fourth. Evidently this schooling was encroaching on their hours of sleep, to say nothing of the 12 hours or more of hard work they had put in. Only by skilful teaching could such interest be maintained with a class, that, however willing, was below the average both in physique and in intelligence. I was glad to learn that the Bakers' Union was in strong sympathy with the idea of compulsory education, supporting it by liberal grants for material and also

maintaining a playground outside the city for the apprentices and their own families. Here they pass the Sunday afternoons in gymnastics and sports. Formerly, all the teaching had to be done on Sunday, but it is hoped that within a few years, the school work will be moved forward into the morning periods and the afternoon saved for the boys' sleep.

The Prussian employers have shown the same readiness to dispense with the services of their apprentices for several hours a week. The Prussian Minister of Commerce, Sydow, introduced his law for the establishment of compulsory Continuation Schools into the Prussian House on March 29th. By this law all places with over 10,000 inhabitants must erect such schools and all apprentices from the age of 15 must attend them. The State will contribute 700,000 marks (\$175,000) to aid the communities in this work.

It is gratifying to read in to-day's paper from Toronto that the site of the new Technical School has been decided on and its purchase recommended. But it is a far cry from the foundation of a school and the German regulation requiring all boys from 15 to 18 to attend classes in such a school from 6 to 12 hours a week. That Germany has taken such an advanced position in this matter is due to her respect for education, which has filtered down from the universities until it has permeated the lowest class.

In Canada, too, it behooves the University man to help such a movement in every way as a part of the highest patriotism. Every advance in popular education must react in favor of the institution, which is the true fountain of national learning. In Germany this reaction has given the title of professor a dignity that inheres in it nowhere else. The successful teacher in a gymnasium is granted the title as the reward of years of faithful service.

He has another more tangible reward which it is high time our own teachers should have. He is entitled to a pension from the first year of his school work. Up to the tenth year of service this pension is 35 per cent. of his pay. After that he receives two per cent. additional per annum for 20 years, and may retire at sixty-five with 75 per cent. of his income. For his widow there is a pension of one third the amount due him at the time of his death and one-fifth for each child till it reaches its majority. These pensions are enjoyed by all civil servants, among

whom the teachers in secondary schools being employed by the State are included. The city teachers in the Munich public and Continuation Schools receive relatively better treatment, as the citizens have shown a wise liberality in this respect to the teachers of their children. In Austria, I was informed, the teachers in the secondary schools, if they teach up to forty years of service, may retire on a full pension, amounting to as much as 6200, kroner (about \$1,300) a year. In Bavaria the average salary of the older teachers in Secondary Schools would run from 7200 to 10,000 marks per annum, or from 1800 to 2500 dollars. These figures show the immense rise in prices that has made Germany a dear land to live in. Much of this rise may be due to the burden of national insurance—a burden which must be acknowledged as just, and which redounds to the national credit and increases the happiness of the people. More of it is due to the exaction of agricultural as well as industrial protection, whereby the few become rich at the expense of the many. With meat and milk at famine prices, Germany has been compelled during the last six months to raise the embargo and admit food supplies. Canada has shown superior wisdom by her readiness to accept reciprocity in food products. By so doing she has attracted the attention of Europe as never before, and is teaching Germany a lesson that is sadly needed. Let us have reciprocity in lessons. Let Canada accept the lesson that Germany has been teaching for years. Let her recognize the value of a high technical training and make such a training possible for every worker in our land, whether agricultural, industrial, commercial or professional. So shall the visions of our statesmen be realized and Canada be the glory of the twentieth century—a victory of peace no less renowned than war's. Let such be the last word of this message from Munich.

REMINISCENCES OF EDUCATION IN ONTARIO.

BY G. A. CHASE, B.A.

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—

I have been asked for some "Reminiscences of Education in Ontario." I shall interpret the phrase in my own way, taking advantage of its indefiniteness to add something that is not reminiscent, but naturally rising from the subject.

Though I entered University College in 1864, I did not graduate till 1870, when my work in the High Schools began. It was at the period when the first thrill of the new life—the Easter morn of Education—began to be felt in our school world. The old schoolmaster, the one who sat at his desk and heard "tasks" recited, with no word of comment or of teaching, while his strap lay near by in glaring conspicuousness, was rapidly passing away. Young men, graduates of the Universities, were beginning to seek positions as teachers in the High Schools, bringing with them a far greater amount of knowledge, at least, than most of their predecessors had possessed. But they needed the teaching inspiration from some original source,—the inspiration to break away from the "use and wont" of by-gone days, and to make the mental development of their pupils the aim of all they did.

Such inspiration came in the first place from Prof. Young when he was appointed inspector of Grammar Schools. All too short was his inspectorship; but he succeeded in showing, at least to those who could take it in, that there were methods and ways and aims and a zeal in education beyond what they had dreamed of. He had to the full the scientific spirit that was hovering over our world, and he sought in all ways open to him to spread that spirit among those upon whom rested the intellectual well-being of the youth committed to their care.

Dr. McLellan, after an interval, succeeded Prof. Young as inspector. Our High Schools owe much to his enthusiasm. He was a teacher, and threw himself heart and soul into his work. In his visits as inspector, he did not confine himself to looking on, taking notes and reporting to the school authorities, he would himself take up the subject in hand, and with surprising spirit, and in ways wholly new, would give both teacher and taught a

lesson that the former, at least, could not fail to profit by. To these two, Prof. Young, and Dr. McLellan, the great advance in methods of teaching in our High Schools is largely due.

To their successors other work fell. The great extension of the High School System called for ability to organize and the awakened intelligence in teachers as to methods in education and the keen interest aroused on all sides as to what constitutes education, —what should be the matter dealt with in our schools, required most careful thought and most careful guidance on the part of those on whom responsibility rested. Our inspectors had to be more than inspectors. Brought into contact with manifold ideas on all sides, and intensely anxious to find out and put into practice what was best for the educational well-being of the community, they had to weigh, to decide, to become, as it were, an educational legislature and an educational executive in one. No wonder, if at times the legislation was faulty; the legislators had not always a free hand; and often they were condemned by our profession for regulations that they had vehemently opposed. Their superiors were the leaders of a political party. No confidence is betrayed by thus speaking.

Perfection has not yet been reached either in method or subject, Change for the *seeming* better at least must always be going on; life depends on it.

And now let me turn my "reminiscences" to our University. When we look back to what the University was in 1864 and compare it with what it is now, the change that we see almost bewilders us by its magnitude. But we must remember that these forty and more years have been years of change and advance in all the civilized world. We have only kept pace with other countries, perhaps just followed their lead. It was the day of small things—small attendance, small faculty, small curriculums, small equipment, small ideas, I might almost add. There seemed to be no aim in the teaching, beyond the acquisition of a modicum of knowledge. In the classical department presided over by the genial, witty President, Dr. McCaul, whose handsome form, robed in the doctor's gown and hood, filled, physically and otherwise, so well the presidential chair, there was no thought that the Latin and Greek tongues were only the keys to unlock the treasures of wisdom and knowledge and beauty left over to us from that old world. They were things to be acquired for their own sakes alone. Happily that idea has passed away, and a

knowledge of Latin and Greek is now sought only as a means whereby the life and thought of those olden days are to be revived to us of the modern world, who stand so deeply indebted to them.

I am glad to have it to say that the one who undoubtedly had the largest share in bringing about this happy change in the aim and purpose of classical studies is still the honored occupant of the Greek chair in our College. And he can still sing, pathetically perhaps, over vanished illusions as to things Attic—"Oh, Attic wine—Oh, turpentine."

The mathematical teaching of Prof. Cherriman was clear and incisive, though rather too curt for those not gifted with mathematical ability. Our honor graduates in mathematics, in competition with the graduates of United States Universities for Professors' chairs or other, seldom were second. "There has been a problem hovering round Yale like a ghost for some years past," wrote a personal friend, a gold-medallist of our University, to me shortly after he went to Yale for a Ph.D. degree: "it has lately been laid to rest." Prof. Cherriman's successors have not allowed the department reputation to wane.

In Science Prof. Chapman dictated to us his lectures in geology and mineralogy; in Botany and Zoölogy Prof. Hicks was unwearied in insisting on the need of recognizing the "quinary" system of classification in Nature. Animals, at least, of all kinds, high and low, naturally fell into groups of fives. What endless classes he gave us! They covered yards of paper. And what wearisome hours I spent in committing them to memory. They remain to me now as a few scattered, meaningless names. How could it be otherwise, when we were forbidden to go to the museum with our zoölogical books for the purpose of studying from them before the cases containing the specimens of the birds, etc., we were reading about! And in Chemistry there was no laboratory work, even for honor students, until the fourth year. We envied the very few who had laboratories of their own at home. Dr. Ellis was one of these.

Modern languages I must pass over. A feeble old man did the whole of the teaching.

Dr. Daniel Wilson,—later Sir Daniel,—whose memory is warm in the hearts of his former students, no matter how old, had under his sole charge, History—ancient, modern, and mediæval,—Philology, English language and literature, and Ethnology!

Pray, think of this for a moment, and then of the change, the advance, that has taken place here. I need not attempt to describe it. Suffice it to say that to-day the honor matriculant in French and German, in English language and literature, and to a great extent in History, enters the University with a better knowledge of these subjects than the honor graduate of forty years ago had on leaving it.

It is idle to say that there has been no interaction between the teaching of English and literature in our High Schools and in the University. But there was a time, happily now long past, when we High School teachers of English language and English literature got no help, no light from the University. When it was decided to have literature introduced into the High School a History of literature was prescribed,—consisting of a few facts in the writers' lives and a list of their writings. I wrote to Dr. Wilson regarding it, suggesting the use of a book of copiously annotated poems recently issued in England. He replied expressing his "surprise" at my suggestion. Later, Thompson's lessons were prescribed. I protested to Dr. McLellan, who was then a member of the Senate of the University, and he laid the matter before Dr. Wilson, who exclaimed, "Why, there are a very great many words in the poem excellently suited for the study of derivations!" There was little help there. We had to grope our way to the teaching of literature; trying biography, trying figures of speech, trying extraneous matter of all kinds, trying parsing and analysis even. I have been told that Prof. Alexander once said it took him years to get over his dislike for the first two books of Milton's *Paradise Lost*. At school he had studied them through parsing and analysis alone. We can forgive him, in view of the great good he has done to the study of literature, both in the college and in the schools. No other in Canada can at all compare with him in influence upon this work.

In view of what has just been said,—(and I must now turn from "Reminiscences"—) is there ground for complaint? Should we not be thankful for what we have attained to, in both matter and method? Thankful, we certainly are, but we have not reached the end. For it seems to me that the place which English in its language and literature holds in the curriculum to-day is not commensurate with its importance. It is, and always will be, the chief means of culture to the vast majority of English-speaking people,—even to those whose education has been the

best a University can give. To the Frenchman, to the German, his language is the vital part of his education. We must make it so to ourselves, whose tongue is in no respect inferior to theirs.

'Tis but yesterday, as it were, that the writing of essays by the students became a requirement of the University course. But only four, of such, a year are asked for, and of limited length. This number cannot possibly secure the desired progress in the use of language or materially increase ease and readiness in the expression of thought.

It has been objected by some in high position in our University world, to whose attention this matter was brought, that little can be done at college for the improvement of the student's language; that the home and the school are the places for such work. But surely this is going too far. Our pupils leave school for college just when they are beginning to realize what "good language" means,—when their tastes are far from being formed, and when their knowledge is limited. And as our teachers are drawn directly or indirectly from the Universities, and very many of them come from homes where careful speech is only too greatly lacking, and if we are to look for little or no improvement from the college, then we are hopelessly doomed forever to an inferior style of speech,—a "second rate English" such as a noted English publisher lately said he found, and was sorry to find, everywhere prevailing in Canada.

I do not believe that improvement in speech stops with the entrance of the student into college, but I do believe that if improvement is to take place far more time must be given it than is the case at present, and far more frequent opportunity for written work afforded. I know that the English staff is overburdened with this work already, and that in consequence some of the work of the students is given to others than the professors to read. No teacher of English is ignorant of the consequences of such a course. But the staff cannot do the impossible. And if the teaching of English is to be adequate, suited to its great importance, the staff must be largely increased. The slight addition made within the last year has been more than counterbalanced by the greatly increased attendance.

My plea is not for the English department, as against other departments. It is a plea for a wider, fuller, more adequate study of our speech, and a better training under the oversight of instructors who are not overwhelmed by their work. Surely

we should be looking most carefully into our methods of instruction and into the time devoted to instruction, if we wish to do away with the reproach of using only "second-rate English," or if we wish it to be no longer possible for a judge to rebuke in open court a lawyer for his vicious style of speech, or for a member of a church synod to take to task a Bishop, publicly, for the same offence.

Is it not—I will not say a pitiful but—a shameful thing, that one of our teachers should have to say that he had taught classics for seventeen years, and yet could but ill express himself in his mother tongue. And men of fine ability and of high attainment in mathematics and science have lamented to me that the time set apart for English work in their departments is so limited they distrust their power to express themselves in proper language.

We may indeed wait a few years longer for the establishment of other sorely needed chairs. Languages in abundance are taught in our college and University; but of *language* there is little or none. We may wait, too, some time longer for the means to an adequate knowledge of the older stages of our language and literature on the part of our students of English and when the curriculum will no longer tell the honor student, who has read a few hundred lines of *Béowulf*, that 'he may read the rest of the story in some good translation.' Do not our cheeks tingle with shame at such a note! What would Dr. Hutton think of a like note in regard to a play of *Æschylus*, part of which was to be read by the honor students of the fourth year!

And we have a museum; but it is only a collection of curios now; and it has been so long so that we can wait longer till a chair of anthropology and ethnology is established to make them of living interest and value in the study of the human race; and History and Political Economy can wait too for its help.

And so, too, Geography can wait, though it is so important in everything that pertains to *man*.

But let us hope that we shall not have to wait long ere the great lack in a department that so deeply concerns us all shall be removed.

We are all pleased with the sight of fine buildings, and feel a pride in seeing them rise around our University grounds; but in view of what has just been said we cannot suppress the thought that a *fine mansion may cover a starving household*.

REMINISCENCES OF H. S. INSPECTORS AND INSPECTIONS.

BY H. I. STRANG.

The inspection of High Schools, or Grammar Schools, as they were then called, was first provided for by the Grammar School Act of 1853, but did not actually begin till 1855. The first inspectors were T. J. Robertson, M.A., doubtless still remembered by some as the first Principal of the Toronto Normal School, and the Rev. Wm. Ormiston, M.A., afterwards better known as Dr. Ormiston, the eloquent preacher, of Hamilton, and subsequently of New York.

Of Mr. Robertson, who acted for three years, I have no recollection. The Departmental report for 1856 shows that he acted as inspector for Western Upper Canada during at least one of the years that I spent at Galt Grammar School, but if he inspected the school while I was present, his visit made no impression on me, for I cannot recollect ever seeing him.

Of Mr. Ormiston, however, I have a very distinct recollection, and doubtless his remarkable looking head, with its great brush of black and somewhat curly hair, all standing erect, had as much to do with the permanence of the impression as his animated and encouraging manner. Unlike the inspectors of recent years, Mr. Ormiston examined and taught as well as observed. Two instances in particular of his manner of dealing with classes are firmly fixed in my memory, the one in Latin, the other in algebra. The former consisted only of a classmate and myself. We were reading Cæsar, and were the highest class. At first we were nervous, and our hesitation and blundering were causing ominous clouds to gather on Mr. Tassie's expressive countenance. Mr. Ormiston saw the trouble, and helping us to recover our composure, soon had us doing our best as rivals.

The algebra class, which was larger, had just begun the solution of equations of two unknown quantities, and we were in need of further help. This Mr. Ormiston gave us, easily gaining and holding the attention of the class. Then, having satisfied himself and us that we ought to be able to solve an ordinary example he introduced to our acquaintance the word *eliminate*, and fixed forever, in my memory at least, its technical meaning

by reference to its etymology. Thanks to our daily lesson in derivation of words of classical origin we were pretty familiar with prefixes, roots and affixes, and were able to give him at once the literal meaning of the word. "That's it," said he, "Over the threshold! Out of doors with it. Get rid of it. That's what we want to do with the x or y ." Long years afterwards, when the Doctor came to Goderich to deliver a lecture, I reminded him, to his surprise, of our previous meeting, and told him what a lasting impression his algebra lesson had made on me.

I left school in 1858 for the University, and of the next three inspectors, who acted with or after Mr. Ormiston (he resigned in 1862), I have no personal recollection. The first was G. R. R. Cockburn, M.A., who had been brought out from Scotland by Dr. Ryerson to be Rector of the short-lived Model Grammar School, then was Principal of U. C. College for many years. The second was Rev. J. Ambery, M.A., also one of the staff of the Model Grammar School, and the third was Rev. W. F. Checkley, M.A., previously Principal of the Barrie Grammar School, which under him gained a fame second only to that of Galt Grammar School under Doctor Tassie.

These were succeeded by Rev. G. P. Young, M.A., who acted as sole inspector for four years, resigning in 1868 to accept the Professorial chair in the University, which he filled with such ability and distinction. Meantime I had obtained a position in the Owen Sound School, and during the last two years of his inspectorate was assistant in the Grammar School. I have more or less definite recollections of two of his visits, but do not recall any incidents of special interest. On one of these visits, I happened to be temporarily in charge of the school, the Head Master being absent in Toronto at a University examination, so that I felt greatly relieved when the inspection was safely over.

While Mr. Young, as I recall him, was not so well fitted as Mr. Ormiston to gain the confidence of pupils and make them feel at ease, I remember being impressed by his evident desire to be perfectly fair in judging their answers and work. He also impressed me as a close, shrewd observer, an impression which was amply confirmed by the perusal of his annual reports. These attracted much attention, especially that for 1867, which dealt with the Common Schools, as well as the Grammar Schools, Dr. Ryerson having specially authorized him to inspect such Common Schools as it might be in his power to visit. In this

report he expressed himself freely, the more so as it was to be his last, and gave some rather startling and impressive facts in regard to the teaching of Latin in the Grammar Schools, and English in the Common Schools. His reports, indeed, backed up by those of his successor, Mr. McKenzie, had doubtless much to do with the important changes that were made by the School Act of 1871, but unfortunately also laid the foundation of the system of "Payment by results," which, as we older teachers know, was productive of such evil consequences.

As I am speaking of things as they were forty-five years ago, I may explain that by the Grammar School Act of 1865 the admission of pupils to the Grammar Schools, which till then had rested solely with the Head Master, was left to the inspectors, the Head Master having still the right to admit pupils provisionally till the next inspection. The regulations prescribed reading, spelling, writing, the four simple rules of arithmetic, and an elementary knowledge of English grammar as the requirements for admission, but the sole test applied by Mr Young was the ability to parse a simple sentence such as: "I always do my work well"; "The mother loves her daughter dearly"; "John ran to school very quickly"; and, according to the report, "No candidate was rejected for a single mistake, but only when it became manifest that he was unable to parse the sentence with ordinary decency." How defective the teaching must have been may be inferred from the fact that nearly fifty per cent. of the candidates had to be rejected. Anyone who thinks that English was as well taught in our schools fifty years ago will do well to borrow a copy of the Chief Superintendent's report for 1867, and read Mr. Young's two reports.

I may also remind the ladies present that in those days not only were girls not admitted to the Universities, but that it cost a hard and prolonged struggle to win for them the right to attend the Grammar Schools on an equal footing with boys. Dr. Ryerson was strongly, and from the first, opposed to their admission, holding that these schools were intended for boys only, and that, moreover, "The mingling of large boys and girls in school is unfavorable to efficient discipline, and to the progress of either class, and not compatible with the refined education of girls."

He, however, yielded, so far as to provide in the Act of 1865 that girls might be admitted "in order to give them an oppor-

tunity of studying the higher English branches and French," but they were "not to be returned as pupils in either of the prescribed courses."

Mr. Young, while not opposed, in the circumstances, to their admission, was not in favor of co-education, as the following sentences show: "I doubt whether, in existing circumstances, girls "could obtain anywhere else than in the Grammar Schools the "education which the highest interests of society render it important they should receive. Accordingly, while my own feeling "is that it would be better for them to pasture, if they had the "opportunity, in separate academic fields, I would not, while "they are without such opportunity, debar them from sharing the "pastures of the boys."

He was, however, like Dr. Ryerson, of the opinion that it was a waste of time for them to study Latin. Now, the Act of 1865 had made it one of the conditions of the recognition of a Grammar School that it must have at least ten duly admitted pupils studying Latin, and also enacted that the government grant should be distributed on the basis of average attendance. Taking advantage of the permission granted by the regulations, boards of trustees, especially of union schools, had allowed and encouraged girls to enter the Grammar Schools, and many of these took Latin, and were, notwithstanding the evident intention of the regulations, included in making up the average attendance. To check this, Dr. Ryerson decided that for 1866, and until further notice, the attendance of two girls taking Latin should count the same as that of one boy. This, of course, only strengthened the agitation to have girls put on an equal footing with boys, and eventually the Chief Superintendent had to give way.

On Mr. Young's resignation, his place was filled by the appointment of the Rev. J. G. D. McKenzie, M.A., who acted as sole inspector till 1871, when Dr. McLellan was associated with him. Mr. McKenzie was scholarly and cultured, and having had considerable experience as a teacher, was well fitted for the position. Unfortunately he suffered from dyspepsia, which made him rather irritable at times, and no doubt led to his unexpected death in 1873.

In the hope of checking the rapid increase in the number of girls attending the Grammar Schools, the Department had decided, while retaining the simple parsing test for classical pupils, to raise the standard somewhat for those intending to take only the

higher English and French course. It fell to Mr. McKenzie's lot to fix and apply the higher standard, and I wish to acknowledge here, that if I have rendered any special service to the cause of good English by the publication of teachers' helps, the credit was primarily due to Mr. McKenzie. The test that he applied was a combined one in spelling, and the correction of grammatical errors. He dictated five sentences, each containing some frequently misspelled words and one grammatical error. I do not recall the number of pupils in the first of my classes subjected to the test, or the exact results, but I well remember that I was surprised and disappointed at the general result. The spelling was creditable, but to my mortification the most of the class had failed to detect more than two or three of the five grammatical errors. Up to this time I had not paid any special attention to drill of this kind, but resolving to be better prepared next time, I asked Mr. McKenzie if he could recommend any book containing a suitable collection of sentences. He told me he could not, but advised me to make a collection for myself, assuring me that I could find plenty of material in the newspapers and in conversation, if I would only learn to use my eyes and ears critically. I began that week, and before his next visit had made a considerable collection. To that I kept adding from time to time, growing more and more interested in the work, and at the same time keeping a lookout for any books that might help me; and when in 1882 I received a copy of "Hodgson's Errors in English," I felt gratified to find that there was scarcely a typical error exemplified in it of which I had not already in my list at least two examples.

I had no thought of publishing, however, till I happened to learn that a Toronto firm had arranged to publish another collection. Through the kindness of a friend, I was introduced to Mr. Clark, of The Copp, Clark Company, and the result was the publication by his firm, in advance of the other collection, of the first edition of *Strang's False Syntax*. Encouraged by the favor with which it was received, and by the kindness of the publishers, I was afterwards induced to undertake other ventures in the book-making line.

Dr. McLellan had been appointed, as I said, as colleague to Mr. McKenzie in 1871, and on the death of the latter in 1873, J. M. Buchan, M.A., and S. A. Marling, M.A., were appointed. The three continued to act jointly till 1879, when Mr. Buchan resigned to become Principal of U. C. College.

Of the three, Dr. McLellan was by far the best known, and it is probably not too much to say that of all the fifteen inspectors he exerted the most direct influence on the teaching in the schools. He was full of life and vigor, and had a great power of arousing interest, and even enthusiasm, and his friendly and informal manner, together with his numerous illustrations and sallies, tended to make pupils feel at ease before him. In fact, of all the inspectors I have known, I should rank him and Dr. Ormiston as the best fitted to get the best possible results out of a class, and to exert an influence on pupils. I am the more desirous to bear this testimony in Dr. McLellan's favor, and also to acknowledge the service that he rendered the schools in improving the teaching, especially of Mathematics and English, because, while I do not recall any occasion on which I was dissatisfied with his inspection, I disapproved strongly of his course in some other matters, and incurred his resentment by my criticism of his acts. Recalling him at his best, however, I cannot help wishing that more of the lecturers in our training schools had an equally sympathetic, animated, and inspiring temperament and manner.

Of Mr. Buchan, who had been a classmate of mine at the University, and whom I valued highly as a personal friend, I have none but kindly recollections. I do not think, however, that he was a very successful, or well-liked inspector. His manner was colder, more reserved, and more critical than Dr. McLellan's, and as a result, pupils were less at ease before him, and less likely to do themselves justice.

Mr. Marling at his best was, I think, a more successful and welcome inspector than Mr. Buchan, but in his later years, he, like Mr. McKenzie, suffered from dyspepsia, and was apt to be irritable at times. I have always regretted that the pleasant relations which had uniformly existed between us suffered a slight jar on his last visit to Goderich, and that I never happened to meet him again. While examining a Greek class in the afternoon he objected to a pupil's translation of a certain phrase, and as the boy looked up appealingly, I explained that I had given him that translation. Thereupon, Mr. Marling bluntly and rather irritably informed me that I was quite wrong. Feeling rather nettled, I slipped out of the room and, returning with "Liddell and Scott," showed him before the class that I had good authority for my rendering. He, in turn, was naturally annoyed, and when we parted shortly afterwards it was hardly on such cordial terms

as we had been wont to do. However, I have no doubt that the little jar left no permanent hard feeling on his side, and I know it did not affect my esteem for his character and scholarship.

So far, I have been speaking of men who have passed away, and now that I come to speak of those still living I naturally have some hesitation. Nevertheless, feeling that I am freer than most teachers to speak my mind, I shall venture to express my opinions frankly, but I hope courteously.

No successor had been appointed to Mr. Buchan, but when Mr. Marling died in 1881, his place was filled by the appointment of J. E. Hodgson, M.A., who, like Mr. Buchan, and Mr. Marling, had been a successful Principal, and whom, on his resignation after many year's service, we were glad to welcome back into our ranks. Mr. Hodgson was well-fitted by scholarship, experience, and disposition for inspectoral work. He had no fads, was of a sympathetic temperament and was a good judge of teachers and their work; and if he erred in his interpretation and enforcement of regulations it was on the side of leniency.*

On Dr. McLellan's resignation, in 1884, the Government appointed John Seath, B.A., who had attracted attention, alike by his success as Principal of St. Catharines Collegiate Institute, and by his unsparing criticisms of Departmental policy and regulations. Dr. Seath, as he has since become, continued to act as inspector, jointly with Mr. Hodgson, till he was called to fill his present exalted position as Superintendent of Education, or, in popular phrase, Autocrat of the Education Department.

From the first Dr. Seath magnified his office, and believing, doubtless, that inspection had become too much a matter of routine, and that a more stimulating treatment was required, he proceeded to stir up teachers and trustees. That he did much good during his inspectorate in securing for the schools more efficient teaching, and greatly improved equipment, accommodation, and surroundings, is, of course, unquestionable; but that he was generally considered, especially in his earlier years, to be too dogmatic and inconsiderate, is, I fear, equally undeniable; and that he was sometimes hasty and mistaken in his judgments he would probably now admit. I must in fairness, however, say that I never had any reason to think that he was ever influenced by personal feeling, or any improper motive in the discharge of his duties. I never

*Since the delivery of this address Mr. Hodgson, too, has passed away.

doubted the sincerity of his convictions,—nobody doubted their strength,—even when they underwent material change, and I always admired his fearless frankness. I often regretted, however, that he did not combine more of the *suaviter in modo* with the *fortiter in re*, for, notwithstanding the undoubted good that he did, as an inspector he was more feared than loved, and trustees, teachers, and pupils were wont to heave a sigh of relief when his inspection for the year was over.

Of the present incumbents I can hardly speak in a reminiscent way as inspectors. I had the pleasure of knowing them all previously as friends and fellow-teachers, and can also claim Mr. Spotton as a fellow-student at the University. I have now been inspected by all three, and I have certainly no reason to complain of their treatment of me. I feel sure that they all desire to discharge their duties fully and fairly, and to promote the best interests of both teachers and pupils. I recognize, too, that they are responsible not for the making, but for the carrying out of the Departmental regulations, and are not wholly free agents. If, therefore, I venture before closing to indulge in some criticisms of the mode and results of inspection as carried on of late years, it is certainly not because I have any personal grievance.

I know that inspection of some kind is not only desirable, but necessary, but my objection to the present system is that it is more harassing than helpful, more worrying than encouraging. The pupils receive no direct benefit from it, and while the teachers are helped somewhat by criticisms and suggestions, they are too often irritated and discouraged by the unsatisfactory character of the tests applied to their work, and by the unfairness of the inferences drawn from these tests.

I believe that when an inspector comes to a school under the charge of a principal of recognized competence and experience, the less he interferes with his time-table and organization the better. A good principal has a reputation to maintain, and has every inducement to get the best assistants he can, and to have his school properly organized, and the work efficiently done. He knows better than any inspector can the qualifications of his assistants, and what in the ever varying circumstances is the best division of work among them, and the best arrangement of the time-table. No one objects to an inspector's advising or suggesting, but a principal naturally resents any attempt to dictate to

him how many lessons per week he must provide in subjects which are to be tested by examination results.

Inspection has become much more irritating and dispiriting since the adoption of the *Approved School fad*, a system which the principals had not asked for, and which as a body they have never favored. It is gratifying, therefore, to learn that the Department has decided to abandon it, and return to the written examination test.

Under any regulations, much depends on the character and temperament of the inspector, and the point of view from which he regards his work and the teachers. Speaking frankly, in the light of long experience, I am disposed to think that in addition to necessary scholarship and experience three of the most desirable requisites in a good inspector are, a good digestion, a sympathetic temperament, and a freedom from fads. I hold, too, that an inspector should come to the teachers as a friend and a counsellor, rather than as a judge, and that he will accomplish more by commendation and encouragement than by criticism and censure. In conclusion, since we must have inspection, is it not possible to have it so conducted that it will be helpful and stimulating, encouraging and inspiring, and that an inspector's visit will be looked forward to with interest and pleasure, rather than as now with anxiety and worry.

REMINISCENCES OF EDUCATION IN ONTARIO.

JOHN HENDERSON, M.A., ST. CATHARINES.

My first duty to-day is to thank the Committee for giving me an opportunity to say a few words on "Reminiscences of Education in Ontario." The subject is a wide one, and, from its very nature, little coherency may be expected in my remarks. The personal experiences of one who has so long been connected with education will touch on many points, and many of these points will probably have little connection. My reminiscences will deal with the Public Schools, with the University and with the High Schools. If the first personal pronoun is much in evidence, I trust that the recurrence of it will be attributed to the nature of the subject with which I have to deal, and not to any feeling of egotism on my part.

For nearly forty years I have been connected with what is now the Ontario Educational Association, and in giving my reminiscences during that time I am forcibly reminded of the words of Horace:

Eheu, fugaces Postume, Postume,
Labuntur anni.

Yes, "the years are slipping away," and most of those who forty years ago played their part in the educational world have disappeared from the scene. There are few now left that in the early seventies shared in our discussions, but by those of us who survive, their memories will not pass into oblivion, nor their worth be forgotten. At that time this High School Section which has now grown to large proportions consisted of a few teachers who met in the sweltering days of the month of August, in earnest conclave around a small table in a room of the Education Department, and tried to solve the problems that confronted them with the same earnestness that marks your deliberations to-day, for even in that golden age troubles and trials fell to the lot of the teacher. If they did not find a solution, they had at least the satisfaction of knowing that they had honestly made an effort to enlighten the governing powers.

I may say, in the first place, that I was brought up in the

country, far away from the distractions of a town or even of a good sized village, and, in the second place, that I never attended a High School. The locality was about sixteen miles from each of four towns, settled by Scotch Presbyterians, who attended church regularly on Sunday, read their Bible, trained their children on the Shorter Catechism, and among them there still remained faint echoes of Burns, Sir Walter Scott, and the Ettrick Shepherd. The only connection with the outside world in those early days was the weekly paper, which often served two or three families. In this sequestered nook of Ontario, boys were left to develop their natural bent, and were free from the feverish excitement of modern city life.

I consider it a part of my good fortune to have had as one of my Public School Teachers the late Rev. Dr. MacKay, for many years the honored pastor of Chalmers Church, Woodstock, then plain W. A. MacKay. When a mere lad of sixteen, he began his career in that district. He was not the teacher in our section, but, rather than go to the school near home, my father was persuaded to allow me to attend the school of Mr. MacKay in a neighboring section. The school was three and a half miles from home, and I had to walk that distance through woods and fields, in summer's sun and winter's wind. To this exercise I attribute the store of health I then laid up, as well as my fondness for tramping to-day. The school was not noted for its architectural beauty; and in fact nothing could be less pretentious than it was. A plain frame building, with a faint suspicion of having been painted at some time or other, without a porch, built on a slightly rising knoll, with a pump in front and a snake fence around the playground, gives some idea of the exterior. The interior was equally uninviting, being absolutely without ornament. The usual aisle ran from the front door to the master's desk; in the centre of this aisle was a huge box stove and behind the stove lay a pile of wood which the boys had to replenish every night. At right angles to the aisle were long wooden desks and benches, graded to suit the sizes of the scholars, whose ages varied from six to twenty-six. On the walls, sadly in need of whitewash, were maps, but these were "like angel's visits, few and far between." On or in the master's desk lay the always convenient tawse, a gentle stimulus to the lawless or indifferent, for at that time the modern heresy of moral suasion was not yet in vogue. Behind the desk was the blackboard and near it a book-case with a small, but well selected,

library. Nothing to the casual observer could be less inviting, but to nearly all of us boys the school was one of the centres of attraction, and the attraction there was the teacher. Of magnificent physique, with a face and head finely shaped, bright hazel eyes, arrayed in his tartan plaid and Glengarry cap, Mr. MacKay presented the striking appearance of a Celt. In character he was a typical Highlander, with all the impetuous ardor of that fiery race. With sometimes sixty or seventy scholars crowded into his school, without any ventilation—and, what is strange, few of us were ever sick—he had to teach everything from the alphabet to trigonometry. Except in reading, the classes were practically without classification. Everyone seemed to work away without reference to his neighbor, and probably better results were obtained than would have been under a highly graded system. The senior boys—for it was not yet supposed that girls could teach—acted as monitors to the younger scholars. All the knowledge of mathematics I got for my University Examinations was there obtained. Before I left the school I had finished Colenso's Algebra, Part I, and the better half of Part II, six books of Euclid and all the Trigonometry required for the first year of the University. The library of the school was a valuable adjunct to the master's teaching. We of the older generation cannot prize Dr. Ryerson too much for his far-seeing policy in establishing a library in every school section, when the country was young, when books were few and when the public library of to-day was unheard of. The old as well as the young read with profit and pleasure the books of the rural school library; a taste for reading was created and the dull drudgery of the early life of the settlers was relieved by the excellent literature that the much-abused Depository so generously fostered. Here was the best literature in poetry, history, biography and travels, but no fiction. The mushy novel had not yet appeared to deprave the taste of the young. The intellectual fare was wholesome and generally highly prized by the community. There was no mental dyspepsia resulting from over-teaching. The sugar-coated methods of instruction of modern days were things unknown. The teacher and the teacher alone made the school.

In a Scotch locality two persons generally are prominent, the teacher and the minister. The minister was the Rev. Wm. Robertson, M.A., then a young man of twenty-five, fresh from Glasgow University. Many of the men now occupying prominent

positions in Ontario and outside of it will look back to Mr. Robertson as "a guide, philosopher, and friend." Like Goldsmith's preacher, "a man he was to all the country dear." In the first place he had that genuine sympathy that always attracts. Sincere piety, genuine scholarship, breadth of culture and never failing good nature were finely blended in his character. He was an excellent type of a minister without being an ecclesiastic. It was his custom to pick out of the Public School pupils those who desired to study Latin, and amongst the number were half a dozen of us boys. This practice he kept up till nearly his death. I may mention some of those who owe their early training to his disinterested kindness—Rev. R. Pettigrew of Glenmorris, Dr. MacKay of Woodstock, R. A. Little of London, D. C. Little of Victoria, John Brown of Winnipeg, Dr. Shiel and Rev. Dr. Shearer of this city, Dr. Bonner, professor of Greek in Chicago University, all graduates of Toronto University, Dr. Baird, of Bay City, Michigan, and Dr. Brown, of Plattsville. Many others might be mentioned whose names I cannot now recall. With him I began my study of Latin and Greek, and by the time I was fifteen I had made considerable progress, at least in Latin.

Under the influence of the minister and the teacher, my course was shaped and the University was the objective point. To get funds I had to teach, and to teach I had to have a certificate. At four o'clock, on a wild winter's morning, in December, 1861, with another pupil of Mr. MacKay's, I was on my way to Woodstock, sixteen miles distant, where the examination was to be held. No notice six weeks ahead was needed then. At nine a.m. I was in the court house, where the examination took place. If I remember rightly, the only written papers were grammar, history and geography. All the mathematical subjects were examined orally, and it did not take long for Dr. Bettridge, the examiner, to tell whether we knew our Euclid or could solve equations in Algebra. He could find out quicker and more accurately the capability of a candidate than we can do by the written examination of to-day. Before I left next day I had my first class County Board Certificate in my pocket and no Roman conqueror ever marched home with more triumphant pride.

My first experience was in the public schools of the County of Oxford, 1863 to 1866 and 1868 to 1869. At first I received the sum of twenty-five dollars a month, with the special proviso in the

agreement that I had to light the fires and keep the school clean. Notwithstanding the low salary and the hard task of teaching fifty or sixty pupils, I enjoyed the work. During these years, I continued my University work with Mr. Robertson, walking five and a half miles to get my weekly lesson on Friday nights. Such a thing as a University Curriculum was unknown in that part and the Matriculation requirements I got from the Journal of Education. During that period of teaching I had read nearly all Caesar's Gallic War, six books of Virgil, several orations of Cicero, all of Sallust, and a good deal of Ovid, several books of Xenophon and Homer, and all Walker's Selections of Lucian. I had a good vocabulary and could translate easily, if not elegantly. But Latin and Greek Prose was little heeded. At that time the Pass Course was fixed. Latin, Greek (two papers each), mathematics (one paper), English grammar and Ancient history (one paper) and French (optional) formed the examination. There was no drilling on examination papers at that time. In fact, the first paper I ever saw was the Pass Greek paper on which I wrote. There was no bolstering up the weaklings by Supplemental examinations. If a candidate failed in any subject, that was the end of him for that year. The course after entering was fixed for Pass to the end of the second year. All had to take the Pass course and if a student was a candidate for Honors, he took his Honor work in addition to his Pass. After the second year, he specialized, if he obtained honors in a subject in the second year. We specialize now too soon and too much. Even if a student gained a smattering of a subject in the Pass work in the first two years of the course, this was infinitely better than ignorance of the subject altogether. With all our specialization, from my experience as a University examiner, I fail to find that the Honor men at present are better up than those were in the olden days.

The University then was vastly different from what it is now. We may change the old Latin adage and say: "*Magna Universitas, magna solitudo.*" The classes then were small and the personal contact of professors and students and of students with one another produced friendships that never will be obliterated.

It will be forty years next June since I graduated. At that time in solitary majesty University College reared its stately head in the park. The other buildings that have since been

erected may be imposing, but to us of the older generation of graduates, in University College alone, our interest centres. I never come to this building without seeing in my mind's eye the venerable professors that adorned its class rooms or the students that paced its corridors. If the professors of that age could now visit us in the flesh, what would they think of the changes that have come over our educational system? The old gods of the Educational Olympus have been dethroned and become the cup-bearers to "the hard grained Muses of the Cube and Square." or to their still harder grained sisters of Science and Political Economy. In the University at that time was a staff of Professors many of whom would have done Honor to any University.

When I first entered, Dr. McCaul was in his prime. He had had the satisfaction of placing the University on a broad Provincial basis, and was reaping the reward of his early struggle with narrow Sectarianism. The students regarded him as the glory and light of the College. In the Doctor they saw centred enlightened judgment, rare tact, and a genial humour that he seldom failed to maintain in even trying circumstances. All admitted his great ability, untiring energy, and brilliant powers of oratory. Like Ulysses, "the man of many counsels," he seldom forgot to say or do the right thing at the right time. He could, however, be sarcastic on occasions. I can well remember an incident that happened in the Logic class. One of the students, not noted for his devotion to study, came in late, and without his gown—two deadly sins in the Doctor's eyes. The only seat vacant was immediately in front, which the delinquent took. The Doctor eyed for a moment the student and said, "Well, Mr. Jones, you might have brought your gown with you. It would be the only sign by which we would know that you were a student." His addresses at convocation were models of chaste diction, nor was the Doctor unconscious of the effect that a good period produced, for it was generally whispered among the students that he always clasped his hands in front of him when he wished applause to be given. He had the most remarkable memory of faces and names, and wonderful tact in managing his students and his staff. With University College his name will ever be associated. Over its destinies for nearly forty years he presided wisely and well. Before the students he set up a high ideal of scholarship, and though the temptation must have been great in

a young country to admit the ill-prepared for the sake of numbers—the curse of weak colleges—his ideal was to make the degree of Toronto University equal to that of any University of Europe.

As I have already said, I never attended a High School as a pupil, nor did I ever attend a Normal School. This doesn't seem to me a very great disadvantage. Five years practical experience in a public school should be a better preparation for High School teaching than all the training under any professor of pedagogy. The fact is that I have always regarded the systematic training in methods often a hindrance rather than a help. "Every tree is known by its fruit." If good results are obtained by the teacher, it matters little what methods he adopts. Of course, a teacher must first of all know thoroughly the subjects he has to teach and also must have common sense. If these two requisites are wanting, all his theoretical knowledge will be "tinkling brass and sounding* cymbals." My first experience in High School work was at Beamsville. Though the law required that two teachers at least should be the staff of a High School, Beamsville was one of the many schools that had only one teacher. The High and Public School Boards were united, the two schools were in the same building, and the Head master of the High School was also supervisor of the Public School. There was one saving condition:

"I was monarch of all I surveyed,
My right there was none to dispute."

We had little or no interference from the Department, no fault was found with our time table and no restrictive regulations hampered our efforts. If the pupils did well at the Inspectoral visit, we were safe from any further trouble. The entrance examination was under a board consisting of the Head Master, County Inspector and chairman of the High School Board, but the Head master prepared and read the papers and practically had the admission of candidates in his own hands. The centralization of the entrance examination did not take place till two years after I was appointed. The year I spent at Beamsville I look upon with pleasure, for freedom was allowed the Head Master then to develop the work of the school as he saw fit. I may mention that I had in my classes when there: the Rev. Dr. Harris, of

this city; W. J. Fraser, afterwards Gilchrist scholar of London University; W. A. McCleary, for many years member for Welland, of the Local and Dominion Parliaments. I mention this fact to show that a school does not depend on elaborate machinery to produce good results. While at Beamsville, I came in contact with two Inspectors—the late J. G. D. MacKenzie and Dr. McLellan. Through the good offices of Mr. MacKenzie, I was appointed Classical Master at St. Catharines. From 1872 to 1884, I was an assistant, and from 1884 to 1909, head master, so that nearly all my experience was in one school. I served under two head masters—the late Dr. J. Howard Hunter for two years and Dr. John Seath for ten years. Dr. Hunter was a man of acknowledged ability as a teacher, remarkably well read and a leader in educational affairs. Under Dr. Seath, the present superintendent of education, the school was very prosperous, and enjoyed more than a provincial reputation. The success that it had in examinations attracted many students from all parts of Ontario.

If we examine the history of the educational department from those early days to the present, we shall find that the annals of it is a chronicle of buried theories that lived for a day and died “unwept, unhonored and unsung,” without even the faintest hope of “a glorious resurrection.” I shall refer to only a few of the kaleidoscopic changes of the last thirty years.

The Principle of the “Payment by Results” dominated the work of the school from 1875 to 1882. This principle was first embodied in a Report by Professor Young in 1865, but did not come into being till ten years later, so long did the period of incubation require. Like many other principles engrafted on our educational system, this was a direct importation, for it had been on trial in England. What might be good, however, for England, might be very bad for Ontario, for conditions are totally different in these two countries. In reporting on French schools, Mathew Arnold, for many years a government inspector of schools in England, wisely remarked that he saw much to admire in the schools and colleges in France, but that it was always an important problem for Englishmen to determine how far the introduction of what was peculiar to the genius of one people would be conducive to the educational interests of his own land. Various proposals for settling a basis on which the distribution of the government grant should be made were advocated before

the principle was fully established. It was proposed first to divide the grant on (1) average attendance; (2) proficiency of the school determined by reports of inspectors; (3) length of time the school is kept open. One can easily see that the recently modified approved school regulation is only another form of the second proviso. To carry out this scheme, schools were divided by the inspector into four classes. Pupils of the first class of schools brought to the treasury of the Board \$10.50 each; those of the second class, \$9.50 each; those of the third class, \$7.70 each, and those of the fourth \$5.00 each. This scheme soon fell through, for every one knew that no inspector could grade the pupils of any school in the short time given to inspection. The Government soon found that too much power had been put in the hands of the inspectors and a general storm of disapproval raged over the whole country. In 1875, a new scheme of payment by results was tried on the basis of the Intermediate Examination. This examination was so called because it was supposed to mark the progress of a pupil from the entrance to the Honor matriculation examination. All who passed the Intermediate Examination, were called Upper School pupils; all below it belonged to the Lower School. The scheme now proposed was:—(1) fixed grant for each school; (2) average attendance of each pupil, one dollar; (3) thirty dollars for each pupil in the Upper School; (4) ten thousand dollars distributed on the results of inspection. One can easily see the effect of all this. But by a strange perversity of the Educational Department it was enforced. Wholesale cram permeated all the schools. The aim of every Board was to get as large a share of the government grant as possible, and the surest way to do so was to pass pupils at the examination. Then the struggle began, not merely to pass one's own pupils, but to rob other schools of prospective material for this examination, by offering bonuses and scholarships. A general scramble for pupils was the result and consequently jealous bitterness was aroused among the schools. This was not the worst result. Boards often dealt ruthlessly with teachers whose pupils, failing to pass the examination, failed to fill the local educational treasury. The health of both pupils and teachers was sacrificed, all to satisfy the greed of exacting trustees, aided and abetted by the Educational Department. And yet this scheme had as sponsors the venerable superintendent of education and the three High School Inspectors. Well might we say with Shakespeare:—

“What damned error, but some sober brow
Will bless it and approve it with a text,
Hiding the grossness with fair ornament?
There is no vice so simple but assumes
Some mark of virtue in his outward parts.”

This system lasted for about seven years and died a natural death. So many had passed the examination that the apportionment of the government grant became valueless. Then another turn was given to the educational wheel in 1885, when the government grant was distributed principally on the basis of local aid:—(1) Salaries paid to teachers; (2) character and equipment of the school buildings; (3) average attendance. This is practically the basis of the present apportionment, except that a fixed amount is now given to each school in addition.

In 1886, an important change in the unification of examinations was made by the Hon. G. W. Ross. Before that time, not only had the different Universities, but the different professions, a different standard for entrance. It was a Chinese puzzle to construct a time table to suit all. By an arrangement among the Universities, a joint matriculation was held, and the Matriculation certificate was a passport to the Universities and to the professions. A few years later to complete this unification by exacting two languages from Junior Leaving candidates, the certificates of these candidates were accepted by the Universities. We then hoped that we had reached the end of the educational changes and that we could rest in blissful ease and enjoy repose, like the gods of Homer. But alas, for the vanity of human wishes. It was soon seen that the University gained in quantity, if not in quality, and that the time spent by the candidates for certificates had unprofitably been spent in French and Latin, which they were not called upon to teach. The result was another turn of the educational wheel and the unification of examinations broken up.

It would require too long a time to tell the various educational hobbies of the department. In olden times mathematics held sway, and the raw recruit of our High Schools was duly initiated early into the mysteries of the Unitary Method and the riddles of Algebra. It was not long after, before the department discovered that mathematics was a delusion and a snare and that every one should study the sublime language of Shakespeare and Milton by investigating hair-splitting distinctions that these authors

never intended to make; again the department found that it had made a huge mistake and that the noble science of Chemistry was "the key of all knowledge." But alas, for our hopes, a change came over the spirit of their dream and the order was given that the whole duty of the pupil consisted of making imitations of style formed on "Prose Models," whether the pupils had any ideas to express or not. We have now got nearly to the end of the cycle, and if there be any truth in Buddha, we shall soon see the return of the buried civilization of past ages.

One word I would like to say against a recent importation. If this scheme came from England, we might look with some favor upon it, but like many other educational heresies, it comes from the Eastern States. Most of the fads in education that we have may be traced to this same source. We attempt to ape in educational methods a country at least two centuries older than we are in experience and social development. What may be good for the United States may be very bad for Ontario. But the principle of the approved school has not been good for the States and has generally been discarded. First of all let us remember that in the New England States, where the principle first took root, many of the schools that prepare pupils for the Universities are private High Schools. Some twenty years ago it was decided to put a number of such High Schools on an approved list and if the pupils of such schools produced a certificate from the principal of having spent the required time in the different subjects, the pupil was admitted to the University without further examination. Again in regard to the examinations corresponding to the graduation examination in New York State, I may say that these are conducted in a totally different method from our examinations. The papers are made out by Central Board, sent to the principals, who, with their staffs, examine them and the pupil is certified as having passed the entrance to the University. But so much laxity was found in the conduct of these examinations that the better classes of colleges soon refused to accept these certificates and only the poorer colleges now admit such pupils. The Approved School principle is a modification of this. We must have inspectors; that is admitted. But in the enforcement of this principle, inspectors can do their duty neither to themselves, to the Department or to the school. Inspectors are like other men, with limitations of capacity for work and of intellect, and to believe that any Inspector can find out the true status of a School, and at the

same time do the drudgery of examining thousands of pages of note-books in the short time they give to inspection, is to believe an absurdity. When the Approved School principle was first advocated by the Department it was claimed that it would give relief to the pressure of studies and afford the teacher more time and freedom. Instead of this, this regulation is hampering his usefulness and wasting his time and paralyzing the best effects of his teaching. We pity the heathen Chinese for bandaging the feet of their women, we send missionaries to Flat-headed Indians, to convert them from the barbarous custom of strapping the heads of their children, but we allow ourselves to be shackled with the fetters of regulations, that will soon reduce us to merest of machines, to educational imbeciles. A teacher may observe "the weightier matters of the law," but if he omits "the tithe of mint and cummin," at once he is sent to the limbo of the unapproved to mend his ways, and after due purification and repentance, a slight hope is held out by the Inspector that a mission may be given to the blissful abode of the approved, but even then there is no certainty that his sojourn will be long.

We are reminded constantly at these conventions, year after year, that we have the finest system of education in the world, and that we are the envy of the nations in this respect. We have degenerated into a sort of mutual admiration society and the sooner we look the facts in the face the better for us educationally. I would like that such eulogists would ponder in their hearts the following slight variation of the well known poet:—

"O wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursel's as others see us.
It wad frae mony a blunder free us
And foolish notion.
What airs in self-conceit would leave us
In education."

If our land means to take her position among the nations of the world, let her see to it that the essential branches of, at least, a good English education are obtained and let her beware of following the "Will-o'-the-Wisp" schemes of modern days that will lead us eventually only to an educational quagmire.

MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

THE ASSOCIATION'S TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

A. H. YOUNG, M.A., PRESIDENT.

We are met together this morning to commemorate the close of twenty-five years of activity for the Modern Language Association of Ontario, as its name originally was. That it has accomplished much those know best who have watched its development from the month of August, 1886. What it has attempted it is my pleasing duty to try to describe, as well as to pay a well merited tribute to those who have been chiefly responsible for its management down to the present day.

In the month and year already mentioned, eight persons met together at the Education Department and discussed the advisability of forming an association. These, following the order of the minute book, were: J. M. Hunter, A. W. Wright, Wm. Houston, C. Whetham, J. H. Cameron, E. J. McIntyre, A. H. Young, and J. Squair—most of whom are happily still alive, though only three are still members of the teaching profession.

The chief credit for the movement, which has had far-reaching consequences for the study and the teaching of modern languages, no less than for University College, the University, and the Educational Association of Ontario, belongs to Professor Squair, who at the time was, because of the curious state of University politics and administration, a temporary lecturer on a very inadequate salary. He had been a brilliant student and had on Commencement Day had an advantageous offer to go elsewhere. Suddenly finding himself in the autumn of 1883 left in charge of the department of French, he devoted himself with such earnestness and thoroughness to the duties of his office, as to win the respect and the gratitude of the under-graduates of that time, thus justifying the successive stages of advancement through which he has passed.

The outcome of the meeting already referred to was a circular inviting all persons interested in modern language study to meet in the University College Y. M. C. A. building, in Christmas week. A programme was drawn up and was subsequently carried out, officers being also elected and a constitution (of only six articles) adopted, after not a little discussion and divergence of opinion among the twenty-eight persons who accepted the invitation. These were: Dr. Wilson; Messrs. Shaw, Van der Smissen, Fraser, Wright, Balmer, McIntyre, Cameron, Toews, Young; Miss Hagarty, Miss DeWilton; Messrs. L. H. Alexander, Sykes, Seath, Blackstock, Keys, J. C. Robertson, G. F. Lawson, Hunter, Frankenstein; Dr. Hamilton; Messrs. Squair, Houston; Miss Balmer; Messrs. J. A. Ferguson, G. I. Riddell, Arnoldus Miller.

That the new organization was to be militant, and not by any means merely scientific or aesthetical, is abundantly clear from Article II. of the constitution, which states that the object shall be "the promotion of the interests of the study of Modern Languages in Ontario." With this programme as just defined the titles of several of the papers are thoroughly in keeping:—"The Status of Modern Language Study in Ontario"; "The Uses of Modern Language Study"; "French in University College"; and "Examinations in Modern Languages."

The writer of the first of these, Mr. George E. Shaw, of the Jarvis St. Collegiate Institute, who had just been elected Vice-President, vigorously contended for an absolutely "equal footing for Modern Languages with any other department of study followed in the schools or universities of the province." Four years later he was able, in delivering his presidential address, to congratulate his fellow-members upon the progress which they had attained in their propaganda.

The scale of values at Matriculation was pugnaciously attacked. Mr. Robert Balmer, now a successful business man in Buenos Ayres, was anxious to see less formal grammar demanded and more questions in composition set. This reform was speedily effected and was followed in due course by another of equal importance, a higher valuation of sight work relatively to passages from prescribed texts.

In all matters appertaining to examinations, prescription of work, the character and marking of papers, and the appointment of examiners the Association has been ever vigilant. So late as 1903, a vote of censure was passed on an unsatisfactory paper in

German, while in a much earlier year the opinion was decidedly expressed that only those who had had recent experience as teachers in the schools should be called upon to serve on the examining board.

At the initial meeting a resolution was adopted which stands at the very beginning of a long and important evolution. This was a request to the Education Department for the assimilation of the University's matriculation examination to the examinations held by the Department.

Added to this request was another for a subvention for the funds of the Association. This was not granted, though the Department showed itself in other respects more or less sympathetic.

Notwithstanding this refusal, the Secretary-Treasurer was, at the second annual meeting, held, like two or three that followed it, in the old Canadian Institute in Richmond St., able to report a balance of five dollars and six cents (\$5.06). This, in spite of increasing expenditures, the (right and proper) payment of the travelling expenses of non-resident members of the Executive, and the capitation fees paid to the General Association, has, without taking account of fluctuations, grown to the respectable sum of three hundred and fifty-six dollars and fifty-one cents, as reported a year ago.

There have been only three Secretary-Treasurers, Professor Squair, who has twice held office (from 1886 to 1893 and from 1899 to 1907); Professor Fraser, who early identified himself with the Association's work and aims, and who, with Professors Squair and Van der Smissen, has placed the whole profession under obligation through the labour bestowed upon the excellent grammars that bear his name and theirs; and, lastly, Professor Needler, to whom is largely due the success of the last three meetings.

Besides the Secretary-Treasurer, the officers, as originally decided upon, were an honorary president, a president, a vice-president, and eight councillors. The councillors were subsequently increased to twelve, and still later they were reduced to six, their present number. The first council consisted of Messrs. Fraser, Toews, Seath, Keys, Sykes, Hunter, Balmer, and McIntyre. There were also to be honorary members, Dr. Wilson, Mr. Seath, and Dr. Goldwin Smith early being elected.

The first honorary president was, most fittingly, the President

of University College, Dr. Daniel Wilson, who had not then been knighted or yet been made President of the University. He gave two addresses as honorary president, the first of which is described as having been "of a refreshing and encouraging kind."

In the office he was succeeded by Dr. Goldwin Smith and Mr. Chancellor (now Sir John) Boyd. The former of these gentlemen, like Dr. Wilson, also held the office for two years and delivered two charming addresses—the one on "Literary Men whom I have met" and the other on the "Study of Languages and Literature." The pity is that the sane balancing of modern languages and classics as complementary to one another, which characterized the second mentioned, was not fully appreciated by modern language men and classical alike. If it had been, a long battle, which disgraces the history of the University and the debates over options and examination values at Matriculation would never have been necessary and would never have been fought.

As the teachers of the foreign modern languages had no voice in the councils of the University or of University College, it was only to be expected that the University should return, as it did, supercilious replies to successive representations on various matters of vital interest. The contrast between those days and these is worthy of note, when the University welcomes and even invites suggestions in regard to courses, especially the prescription of work.

It is a matter for congratulation, too, that at last the Educational Association of Ontario, with all its sections, now meets in the provincial University from year to year. It outgrew the accommodation provided at the Normal School, to which the Modern Language Association migrated in 1889. It likewise changed its date of meeting from the inconvenient month of August, largely because of the movement which began in August, 1886.

One by one, groups of teachers in other special subjects followed the example of the modern language men and women and formed associations of their own in a spirit of generous rivalry, as well, possibly, in one of self-interest and of self-protection, the College and High School Department also being founded. For yet another development as the Modern Language Association may fairly claim the credit—that of holding joint sessions at one time or the other with the Classical Association

and the Historical Association, when papers on literary, historical, artistic, and philological subjects of common interest have been presented.

Unfortunately disappointment has thrice been felt at the non-appearance, through illness or pressure of engagements, of two Canadian poets, Mr. William Wilfrid Campbell and Mr. Louis Fréchette. The latter was at one time a candidate for the office of honorary president, the office itself having been abolished (though why does not appear) after it had had three occupants.

To several professors of other universities the Association has at various times been indebted for valuable contributions. Among these have been Professor McGillivray, of Queen's, whom we are glad to welcome again at this meeting, and whom we hope we shall often see again, as well as his colleagues, Professors Cappon and Campbell. We have had also Professor McFadyen, of Knox College, Professor Moulton, of Chicago, Professor Walter, of McGill, the Provost of the Western University, and, while Victoria was still exercising her full University powers, Professors Bell and Reynar. Together with these we have listened to Professor McLay, of McMaster, in the days preceding the secession of our colleagues in English, who strongly felt that their interests required an Association of their own.

It is extremely desirable that the relations with other universities and their graduates should be the closest possible. They contribute largely and generously to the intellectual and pedagogical treasure of the province. Therefore, they should not have even the shadow of cause to feel that the fact of the Association's meeting in the building of the University of Toronto, is in any sense tantamount to excluding them.

The desire has been formally expressed on at least two occasions that our fellow-workers in the United States should hold the meeting of their Modern Language Association in Toronto. Thus far, they have not seen their way to accepting the invitations tendered to them. But the minutes of the meeting held twenty-five years ago record that a telegram of congratulation on the new organization was received from the Modern Language Association of America. And from time to time members of our Association have attended the meetings of our elder sister. That reciprocity in this matter would be of benefit to us, all would probably agree, though, doubtless, there would, just as

probably, be great divergence in regard to the other kind of reciprocity which is at present being agitated.[†]

One feature that deserves to be noted in connection with the addresses given by visiting professors is that they deal with literary manifestations and philological phenomena, rather than with the so-called practical problems. The latter have at times displayed a tendency to bulk too largely on the programmes, although the records shew that our regular members have contributed not a few literary and linguistic studies of a high order.

The ambitious plan to study the dialects of Ontario has not been seriously worked out, though several interesting papers dealing with the French language and people of Quebec have been heard at various times. More and more should this and other linguistic subjects, as well as those of a substantial literary character, be taken up as an antidote to the cramping and dulling effect of our daily work.

It is true that methods of teaching are all-important and that, with changing ideals and with the new generations coming on, the same old ground has often to be traversed anew, but it has seemed to me that, in dealing with the practical, we may at times have been in danger of threshing old straw to no purpose. The antidote I have already mentioned might well be borne in mind. And the Executive might perhaps be able to make its programmes before the long vacation and thus enable those who are to take part in them at the succeeding Easter to have the more time in which to prepare papers that would be still more profitable and satisfactory to themselves and their hearers alike. As we all know, the demands of the academic year are so heavy upon all of us as to leave us less time than we should like to have for our own cultivation.

One of the chief features and one of the most valuable to be found in our programmes in the last twelve years is the addresses in French or in German. For these we have been largely indebted to Mr. de Champ, frequently, and to the late Mr. Mason, in French; and, in German, to Baron von Nettelblatt, Pastor Rembe, Dr. Reich, and Mr. Müller, who is to address us again to-day.

Another feature has been the social gathering usually held on

[†]Ever since 1886 the Modern Language Association of America has annually sent a copy of its proceedings, which are stored up in the Library of the University of Toronto.

the Tuesday afternoon, but which it has been decided to omit this year because of the jubilee dinner of the General Association, in which we are asked to join to-night. This social gathering was first held by Professor Fraser, who, with Mrs. Fraser, extended the hospitality of his home to the members of the Association in 1902. This lead was followed up by Professor and Mrs. Needler in 1903, at the Faculty Union, and by the successive presidents in their respective years of office.

An early president would have taken this line, if one may say so without derogating from the credit so justly due to the ladies and gentlemen mentioned a moment ago. The Minister of Education of that day, however, gave the permission for the gathering, but recalled the president to tell him that he "had better leave his tea-kettle at home."

The first president of the Association was Professor van der Smissen, who soon will celebrate the jubilee of his appointment to the position of lecturer in German. His services in the matter of securing the use of the Canadian Institute for the second and third meetings were much appreciated at the time. And the grammar which he and Professor Fraser wrote was welcome in both its first and its revised edition.

The second president was Mr. Seath, High School Inspector, now Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education for the province. As he was in close touch with the Minister of Education, his advice was invaluable. On his address were based several resolutions in favour of the division of the Modern Language course into Romance and Teutonic; the removal from it of History and Ethnology; compulsory French and German at Matriculation; a higher pass standard at Matriculation; and obligatory English for all undergraduates in the first and second year.

It was decided to procure the publication of the address. Then, as now, however, the question of the publication of papers and the establishment of a library for the Association often gave grave concern to the Association and the Executive. The former is now happily secured through the book of the proceedings of the General Association. The latter, the need for which is not at present so urgent as it was in earlier days when the equipment of the University's library was less than it is to-day, still awaits fulfilment.

Among the others who have occupied the presidential chair have been Messrs. L. E. Embree, Wm. Tytler, G. E. Shaw, G.

A. Chase, W. J. Alexander, Squair, Keys, A. W. Wright, F. H. Sykes, J. H. Cameron, A. Stevenson, W. H. Fraser, A. W. Burt, G. H. Needler, A. E. Lang, I. M. Levan, J. S. Lane, E. S. Hogarth, J. N. Dales, Pelham Edgar, and W. C. Ferguson. Some time ago the custom arose of electing the president alternately from the University and High School members of the Association. In the working out of the plan, however, a lady has never been placed in the chair—an omission which ought to be remedied, considering the large number of ladies on the roll of members.

Upon the question of text-books I have touched only incidentally. A characteristically plausible letter from the Honourable G. W. Ross, when he was Minister of Education, shews that the Department, though very courteous, had no intention to allow its policy in regard to authorization to be interfered with. How far it perseveres in that intention under another Minister and a different organization is not clear. But at any rate the authorities do consult the teachers and the Associations. In our own case it is to be hoped that a still more enlightened policy will, in time, obtain in regard to the production of elementary grammars and readers for the two languages and of other grammars and readers working up from the former. After all efficiency is of more account than cheapness or decennial immutability.

Notwithstanding the failures which I have mentioned incidentally, there is much, as there was twenty years ago, when Mr. Shaw made his review of the Association's history, upon which we may fairly congratulate ourselves. There are still other things for us to strive for even while we honour those who fought the battles of the past and made progress possible. And, above all, we need, individually and collectively, to strive for more knowledge and more reverence, to think rather of the end of education and not only of the means by which the end is to be attained, to stand as the mediators, as it were, between nation and nation, interpreting to those committed to our care something of the thought and culture and ethics and ideals of those who speak in tongues allied to but differing from our own.

THE STUDY OF GERMAN FROM VARIOUS POINTS OF VIEW.

PROF. J. MACGILLIVRAY.

Of the foreign languages now studied in the Secondary Schools, German is the most recent introduction, and it has had a somewhat inglorious career. When the modern languages could no longer be ignored, German, with French, was made the equivalent of Greek, which, at least, made it the equal of French, rather a negative eminence, it is true. Then Greek was dethroned, but its place was usurped by the natural sciences, and German, while becoming the equal of Greek, lost its equality with French.

The tendency then, on the part of the educational authorities, seems to be to emphasize subjects that they think of immediate practical importance, and on the part of students and teachers, when the curriculum allows them an option, to follow the same course, or go along the line of least resistance, *i.e.*, choose the easier option.

Accordingly, the study of German, practical as it is, is decreasing, and it looks as if the time is not far distant when the language will not be taught at all. According to the 1909 report of the Minister of Education, there were no fewer than twenty-three high schools where no German was taught, while in all the high schools and collegiate institutes combined, there were about five times as many students studying French as German. Only in one Collegiate Institute did the number studying German exceed that taking French, and that was in Berlin, a German centre. And to judge from advertisements of a more recent date for teachers of French and Latin, or French and some other subject or subjects, other than German, the number of schools where German is not at present taught seems to be on the increase.

This neglect of German in the schools, total in some cases, partial in practically all others, is surely a serious mistake that ought to be righted, and that without delay, for the subject is not only practical as a means to an end, but also highly educational, as an unsurpassed mental gymnastic.

Of all present day peoples, the Germans, next to our own, rank easily first, and in many respects they lead even ours. Roughly estimating, the German speaking people, including those of German Austria and Switzerland, number about 100,000,000. The

Germans are masters in all the sciences, and most of the arts as well. Their literature is unexcelled, and in philosophy especially they are past-masters. In the industries and commerce they are rapidly taking a foremost place, and in war they are unrivaled.

In view, then, of what is to be learned from such a people, through a knowledge of their language, is it not a fatuous educational policy that would leave almost all our school youth ignorant of the language and, consequently, of the thought and doings of such a great people, while the knowledge imparted to the ridiculously small remaining fraction may be so perfunctory as to be almost worthless—at least worthless where the pupil's study ends with the school. For this, be it repeated, the departmental regulations are primarily responsible, for they are so framed that an option between French and German is allowed in the first year of the school course, and, in almost every instance, the choice is French, mainly for the reason that it is considered the easier. Then when the pupils pass into the upper school, the option is between French and German on the one hand and a natural science group on the other, which is not in any sense the equivalent of the language option. Even University science experts have pronounced this smattering of science to be worse than useless as a basis for further study. But perhaps it is valuable when there is no superstructure! Owing to the great disparity in the numbers taking the two modern languages in the lower and middle schools, this option-grouping in the upper school works still more detrimentally to German and perhaps in a lesser degree to French.

Why the study of French is begun before that of German is, as already said, the fault of the Education Department, that makes such an option possible. Then it is the fault of the principal or modern language master, or of both combined. Sometimes, doubtless, the parent makes the choice, under the delusion that the ancient French predominance in politics, diplomacy, society still prevails and, consequently, also the educational value of the language. This venerable tradition has undoubtedly its effect on some teachers, too. An even less tenable reason for the choice of French instead of German is that Quebec is a French-speaking province, many of whose inhabitants also learn to understand and speak English, and that, therefore, the English-speaking population of the rest of Canada should learn French, either to return the compliment, or to be linguistically and intellectually the equals of their French fellow-citizens, or to be able to transact

business with them in their mother-tongue. I have heard one or more of these arguments advanced by school principals and college professors, but they scarcely need refutation. For business with France, a knowledge of French is doubtless desirable, but not so much so as a knowledge of German for business transactions with the Germans, who are numerically, and industrially and commercially ahead of the French. But after all, we study foreign languages principally in order to be able to read easily and intelligently what has been written in them, and incidentally only for their directly practical or commercial value. France, it is true, is a decadent nation, but with a brilliant history in politics, as in literature, while her present literature still holds its own and ranks high. French should, then, unquestionably, occupy a prominent position on our secondary school curriculum, which, however, should be so rearranged as to put German on an equal footing with it, as it used to be. The two languages used to be so taken together compulsorily, and with, I think, good results, much better in German and no worse in French. It would be well to revert to this condition, against which there seems to be no valid objection. In any case, if only one modern language must be taught the first year, then the two should alternate; but if the two can be taught together in other years, they can surely also be taught the first year as well.

This would certainly be a great step in advance, as far as German is concerned; but a greater step still is to be taken, not only in the case of German, but also of French, if satisfactory and durable results are to be obtained. This greater step is to come from an improved method of language teaching, or rather improved methods, for any teacher, worthy of the name, must put more or less of his own individuality into any method, and, further, vary this subjective method to avoid staleness and sterility.

This method, productive of permanent results, is the natural, or rather a relatively natural, method, perhaps better designated as the eclectic method, in which the best of all others is included and not only the eyes, but also tongue and ear are used as means to an end, and the language is taught and learnt largely through its own medium, and not through that of English. But I do not intend in this paper to go into the details of any method. The feasibility of a natural method in the schools has already been discussed before this section and on one occasion years ago, the

thing was pronounced impracticable by a high authority. But its impracticability is relative and depends on the knowledge and pedagogical skill of the instructor.

A more or less natural and practical method is, I believe, employed in some of the better schools and by some of the more up-to-date teachers, and ways and means will doubtless be fully brought out in a discussion at a later session. That some such method is not more generally employed is the fault of the curriculum and examination tests, rather than of the teachers. The curriculum, it is true, recommends oral teaching at the beginning, but is more or less dumb as to its further continuance, and no examination has ever yet recognized such instruction. It is a truism to say that teachers are largely estimated by their patrons according to examination results. Teachers as a rule will, therefore, go as far as the curriculum and examination, and no further, and as long as these ignore essentials in modern language teaching, such as the training of tongue and ear, just so long will the majority of teachers also ignore them. To disregard these prime factors is a ridiculous anachronismus and a monstrosity that should be ended at once.

The remedy lies with the examination and curriculum. Notwithstanding the recommendation as to starting with oral teaching, just referred to, and the fact that the High School grammars make ample provision for practical drill, yet tongue and ear seem, as said, to be largely neglected, so that on leaving school, pupils seldom pronounce with reasonable correctness, nor understand the spoken word at all.

Now, without altering even present conditions very radically, an improvement can be made along these lines by simply demanding, in addition to the ordinary examination tests, one in dictation with or without, but preferably with, pronunciation. But the question arises is this possible, and is it worth the extra financial expenditure? I would reply yes to both questions. All that is required is (1) a passage for dictation and another for pronunciation, or the one might serve both purposes; (2) the necessary period or periods on the time-table, variable as to length and perhaps movable as to day, according to the number of candidates and convenience of examiners, and (3) oral examiners. These would be the specialists themselves, who would be exchanged between schools so that a teacher should not examine his own pupils—which after all, might be no drawback, and if the

number of such specialists available would not suffice for all examination centres, then one examiner might do duty for several more or less contiguous centres, which would necessitate, as already indicated, a movable period on the time-table. As for the increased outlay, it would be more than compensated by the enhanced efficiency. And as for financial ways and means such could certainly be easily found.

This reform would, without being much of an innovation, greatly elevate the study of the foreign languages, for dictation alone involves the training of the ear to a knowledge of the correct pronunciation, and inferentially the ability of the tongue to pronounce more or less correctly. It involves also the possession of a reasonably extensive vocabulary and some accurate knowledge of grammatical forms and of punctuation. Indeed, dictation alone might not be an inadequate test, particularly if a translation of it were also required, but it would certainly be an effective rounding off to the old style prose composition and translation examination.

Yet a more general application of this natural-eclectic method would be still more beneficial and also perfectly feasible, but only with specialists in reality as well as in name. And the regulations cannot be at fault here, for they say that the members of the staff of an approved school "shall be legally qualified and competent to teach all the subjects under their charge." "Legally qualified" and "competent" ought to be synonymous, but they may be anything but that, "at least, it may be so in Denmark." Be that as it may, there should be an inspector under such a system who, himself a modern language expert, would be capable of understanding and appreciating, if not of guiding, approved and up-to-date methods and work, and here again I cordially approve of the Departmental regulations, which say: "The Inspector's examinations, both oral and written, shall test whether the work of the different classes, especially those of the Lower School, has been properly done." But, all the same, I have often wondered whether a specialist in Natural Science or Classics or English or Mathematics was a fit and proper person to estimate real values in modern language teaching. And—improved teaching or not—there should be a high school inspector, at least the equal academically and professionally of the best modern language teachers in the country. One of the drawbacks under which moderns are laboring is that there is not an inspector really capable of fully appreciating the work of teachers, not to speak of affording them

any helpful guidance in their work. To carry out a method, such as is above indicated, the curriculum, as at present constituted, would need to be largely recast, so as to contain a general outline of methods and aim, for one cast iron method should not be exacted nor expected, because any method to be effective must be imbued with the personality of the person carrying it out. *Was du ererbt von deinen Vätern hast, Erwirb es, um es zu besitzen.* Reading matter should also be left largely with the teachers themselves, who, too, should be undergoing a process of education, instead of being dwarfed into aimless treadmill performers. This is apt to be the result of slavishly following set regulations and prescribed work. Too frequent repetition of the same literature may easily work very prejudicially to teachers of a certain temperament, while again repetition for a limited time, by better enabling him to get into the spirit of the work, may be helpful to the teacher and beneficial to the pupil. The ultimate aim is such an inoculation of the linguistic feeling as to enable the pupil to read and express himself in a measure as in the mother tongue.

The chief difficulty in this connection would again be with the examination.

As for matriculation it is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when the universities will accept students on the certificate of the school principals. This would greatly simplify matters and be a further step in the education and elevation of the teacher. Apart from this consummation, however, there will always be the necessary test of the Department of Education, and, in the meantime, the University one as well. Here, too, dictation could be managed, as already indicated, and the oral test could be based on a passage of literature previously studied, while the written examination should be limited to prose, free composition and only sight translation.

It has been said that this more rational system of teaching modern languages would have more durable and valuable results, and also develop and elevate the teachers. But these teachers—specialists—ought to be the best material that the university or universities can produce. The Department of Education, the guardian and furtherer of the educational interests of the country, should see to it that specialists' standards are at least reasonably high. It is in the secondary schools that the multitude of public school teachers are trained—not to speak of the greater multitude that do not become teachers and that do not go to the Universities,

but pass directly into private life. Foreign languages, it is true, are not on the public school curriculum, but a debasement of specialists' standards even in French and German, not to speak of other departments, lowers the quality of instruction generally and produces a correspondingly inferior set of public school teachers to reproduce more or less their kind in entrance and matriculation students, and in that vaster crowd that does not go beyond entrance or go even that far, and so continue a constant process of degradation rather than of elevation, and as the *Altmeister* says:

“Gleich dem Unkraut, wüste Häupter schüttelnd, Und tausendfältige Samen um sich streuend Den Kindeskindern nahverwandte Mörder Zur ewigen Wechselwut erzeugt.”

Who then is to be the public watchman to prevent such a lamentable result? The universities or the Minister of Education? The university is the keystone of any system of education, and so of ours. But we have several universities, preparing specialists for the secondary schools, with differently arranged courses, it is true, but probably aiming at the same standard, and two of them with each a faculty of education. This leaves room for competition, but as “competition in business is the soul of trade,” so competition between universities might serve as an excellent and bracing tonic. It might also act disastrously. The faculties of education might, of course, serve as a corrective for any laxity of standards in the universities, but as long as they are part of the universities, and the universities are not public-spirited enough to pitch their standards sufficiently high, they will probably follow suit, and for evident reasons.

One of the universities, possessing a faculty of education, recently got seized of the idea that the other was exacting a much lower standard (which in any case was not unduly high), and lowered its own to match, as it thought, but so much so that its own specialists in the schools, or, at least those of them in the departments of moderns, or French and German, some two dozen in number, protested against it most emphatically, and not only to their own alma mater, but also to the Department of Education, which, with oyster-like passivity, had accepted the lowered standard without question. So there is still hope for the education of our country, when its secondary teachers are public-spirited enough and alive enough to their duty to insist upon the maintenance of high ideals even if the universities and Minister of Education fail in theirs.

LIFE OF ALFRED de MUSSET.

G. S. BALE.

Chateaubriand has said that geniuses have a course of their own. It is impossible to predict what they will do or even to account for what they have done. Perhaps it is because their lives are so different from our own in this respect that we find delight in reading their biographies. There is so much uniformity and repetition in our own careers; what we did a week ago may be safely taken as an indication of what we shall do a week hence. But with geniuses, especially poetic geniuses, how different! To quote Chateaubriand again: "Poets are like birds; every noise sets them singing." It may be the carolling of birds, or the blast of the war-trumpet, the freshness of a Spring morning or the wreckage on a storm-swept sea, the sweetness of a child's innocent face, or the maddened jealousy of the impassioned and disappointed suitor. Probably the most fertile source of poetic inspiration is the poet's own love affairs, and of de Musset his biographer has said that he was always in love, and if at any time he omitted to mention it, the omission must be considered as one on the part of the biographer, not of the poet and lover. No sketch of a poet's life seems to be complete which does not give some account of his ancestry, and trace the gradual growth in a long line of forbears of the poetic talent which finds its full florescence in the subject of the biography. Yet does it not seem as if talent would be more justifiably ascribed to ancestry, if before reaching its zenith, the birth of the illustrious one had been foretold. Does it not detract somewhat from the credit due the genius himself to ascribe to the calm, judicial gravity of the father, and the warm, affectionate, imaginative temperament of the mother, the genius of such a poet as Goethe or de Musset. Not enough that the poet himself should give his ancestors credit for his being what he is. Many a man has said the same of his wife, that all he is, he owes to his wife. In other ranks of life it often reads, All he has, he owes to his wife.

It is quite another matter, however, when we speak of the influences upon the growing child of those parents, grandparents and others, with whom he is daily associated.

The fraternal grandfather had been a judge down to the time

of the Revolution, and after the fall of Robespierre had been a director of the Committee of Public Legislation. He used to delight his grandchildren by reciting whole comedies to them, acting out the different parts. Alfred's father had been intended for the church, but the stirring times of the Revolution turned him into the army, which leads Alfred's brother and biographer, Paul, to remark that the "events of 1789 gave to France a great poet that otherwise would never have seen the light of day." Is it the birth of certain later poets that has given such a stimulus to the present peace movement?

Alfred's father, after having fought in Italy, returned to occupy official positions, of one kind and another, in connection with the Departments of War and of the Interior. To his wife he left the sole control of the children, probably because his time was so fully taken up, not only with war, but with literature; he himself producing works of history, romance, travel, and higher learning. Among his best works was an admirable defence of Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

Alfred de Musset was born in Paris, Dec. 11, 1910. His childhood had the happiness to be uneventful beyond the mere pleasures of that early period. One incident is related as showing, even at the age of three years, the eager impatience to enter upon pleasure. He had been dressed to go out, and had a new pair of red boots put on, of which he was very proud. While waiting for his mother to comb her hair, he stamped with impatience, crying: "Hurry up, mamma, or my new shoes will be old." When he was four years old, he ran with his brother to see Napoleon, who had just returned from Elba. The thrilling sensations of that brief fifteen minutes, during which time he got a glimpse of the Emperor, who was ever referred to in his home, as "the Emperor," left a lasting impression on his mind. In his "Confessions of a Child of the Century," de Musset has shown us what a large place the Napoleonic glories had held in the minds of the youth of that day, and how, after the calm of the restoration of the monarchy had deprived them of this stirring interest, they became the victims of insufferable ennui.

Along with his brother, Paul, he attended a boarding-school, where their days were anything but joyous on account of the royalist sentiments of the favored pupils. The two boys having taken scarlet fever, were withdrawn from school, and after their recovery, were given a private tutor. They now began to devour

the tales of the "Thousand and One Nights," reading and re-reading them, and then acting them out. They even constructed scenery for their plays, an Oriental building being reached by a winding staircase, the lowest step of which was a music folio, and the highest a secretary. From this elevation a well-polished board sloping to a mattress, afforded speedy means of exit in case of attack, or for magic aerial flights.

Alfred and his brother, Paul, frequently spent their vacations at an old chateau in the possession of an elder branch of the family. Here the boys took special delight in hiding in the secret chamber between floors, living out as they did the stories that they had read or listened to.

At nine years of age we find Alfred a pupil at the College of Henry IV., where his pre-eminence in his studies made him the favorite of his teachers, and to the same extent the object of spiteful attacks on the part of less successful pupils. Often he would return from school with clothes torn and face bleeding as the result of the envy of his fellow-pupils. At this time the two brothers were separated, and when they met one Sunday they began to ask each other what they thought of Merlin, the magician, and of magic, in general. It was discovered that both had almost lost faith in this mystic world in which they had believed, and the reading of Don Quixote completed the disillusionment. It was for the poet the beginning of a series of disillusionments which was to take from his life so much in which his poetic temperament had found delight and leave him a saddened old man at thirty-five.

"O, faint illusions of the brain,
O, sudden thrills of fire and frost,
The world is bright while ye remain,
And dark and dead, when ye are lost."

As a boy of sixteen, he studied chiefly philosophy. Here again he felt the need of living out what he studied, watching the effect of a practical application of the theories, and criticising them accordingly.

It seemed natural for young men of his day, of his social status, to follow the practice of law or medicine. The weary barrenness of legal technicalities, however, drove him from the one, while his loathing for the dissecting table led him to abandon the other. As a result he felt that he was to be of no use in the world, until

encouraged by his painting master he began to look forward to the life of a painter.

The family had taken apartments at Auteuil, and every day Alfred went to Paris for his lesson, often returning on foot through the Bois de Boulogne, reading a book as he strolled along. On one occasion he took a book of poems by Andre Chenier and was seized with a desire to write similar verses, which he did in the elegy that begins:

“Both white and sweet she comes, the Athenian maid,
To seek the rill from springs beneath the shade.”

Thus at the age of eighteen we have, except for a few verses written at fourteen, commemorating his mother's birthday, the first poetry he wrote.

At this time the forces of romanticism were gathering strength for a battle with classicism. Alfred de Musset was introduced into the home of Victor Hugo, where he met Alfred de Vigny, M^{re}imée Sainte Beuve, and others. He became a disciple of the romantic school, joined them in their literary discussions, in their walks, to go and see the sun set, and to climb Notre Dame to survey old Paris. Soon he began writing verses, which he would read to his friends of the Cénacle, who welcomed the young poet as a strong recruit to their forces. However, though he had imitated the romanticists in some respect, he never felt bound to adopt all their extravagances, and finally outgrew these tendencies entirely. When as a parting shot he launched at them, “The Ballad to the Moon,” in which he parodies the rimes and images of the romantic school, he “showed clearly that he intended to write as he felt, not what it had been fashionable to feel.” When this work was published, what annoyed most the former fellow-members of the romantic school was the uncertainty in which they stood, as to whether this Ballad to the Moon was a flattering imitation or a ridiculing parody.

Our poet was now eighteen years of age. He had lost his boyish shyness, and in place of this his features had assumed an expression of assurance and pride. He began to attract and be attracted by the ladies. He became associated with a set of wealthy young people, whose customs he followed. Had they horses, he must hire a horse and ride; did they gamble, he must play; were their clothes of the latest fashion, none but the best

tailors were allowed to take his measure. He thrilled with the delight of dancing with real marchionesses, wearing real diamonds. But these delights would be followed by days of depression. There was no money to pay the tailor, the cards were not always favorable. In such times of despondency he would shut himself up in his room, clothe himself in an old dressing gown that would go three times around him, lie on the floor and hum some old tune. He did not want to be disturbed, but wished to drink the cup of bitterness to the full. At night, however, the delights of the dance would drive away these melancholy broodings.

His father had secured for him a position as clerk in an office, but Alfred felt the restraint imposed upon him by this situation. In order to show his father that he could support himself by nobler uses of the pen than adding up columns of figures, he worked hard at a volume of poems which he published under the title, "Tales of Spain and Italy," which, meeting with criticisms favorable and unfavorable, attracted considerable attention.

The director of the Odeon Theatre asked de Musset for a play. The result was the *Venetian Night*. From the beginning of the second act, however, the audience raised such an uproar that the piece was not a success, and its author abandoned writing dramas for representation, although he continued to write them for reading.

The poet now plunged into a life of dissipation, living a round of pleasures—often capriciously interrupted to enjoy a quiet evening at home, instead of a rendezvous, to which he had pledged himself. Throughout the remainder of his life he seems to have been the slave of the moment's whim, the sport of the passing mood, whether that mood was one of poetic inspiration, of mad pleasure, or of deep dejection.

In 1832, having lost his father, he felt the necessity of some definite occupation. He determined first of all to try writing poetry, and if that failed, to become a soldier. The result of this resolve was the publication of a volume entitled "*Scene in an Armchair*," including such poems as "*The Cup and the Lip*." Both on the part of the press and the general public, it met with a cool reception. The following year he began writing for the *Revue de Deux Mondes*, in which most of his subsequent works made their first appearance, *Andrea del Sarte* was followed by *Rolla*, the latter winning great plaudits.

The day after its appearance, the author felt a sense of com-

compensation for the indifference hitherto shown him by one of those apparently trivial, yet intensely significant tributes to greatness, which chance seems to delight in supplying. As he was going into the Opera House, he threw away his unfinished cigar. Immediately he saw a young man stoop, and, picking it up, wrap it up carefully and store it away in his pocket as a cherished relic.

In the year 1833, the poet, now 23 years of age, at a dinner given by the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, met for the first time one who was destined to exert a powerful influence upon his personality and upon his works. No biography of de Musset would be complete which omitted reference to his relation to George Sand. He himself says: "Posterity shall repeat our names as those of the immortal lovers, who have but one to them both, such as Romeo and Juliet, such as Heloise and Abelard. Men shall never speak of one without the other."

Their common interest in works of literature ripened into mutual affection. On the part of the poet it became the strongest passion of his life. With him, love was no mere superficial sentiment, but an intense reality, which laid hold upon him, body, soul and spirit. He experienced its intensest delights, and suffered its most agonizing tortures. He and she both sought to live a life of ideal love, such as they had found in literature, but both were beings with a sullied past which rendered this impossible. Their love affairs were marred by jealousy and suspicion, which constantly drove them apart; the moment they were apart, they were consumed with a longing for each other again. Fifteen minutes after he had cruelly spurned her, he is at her feet imploring forgiveness. To quote the poet again: "Heaven had made us for each other, our minds, in their lofty sphere, recognized each other like two mountain birds; they flew together, but the tension was too great."

In December, 1833, these two literary lovers set out for Italy. In Florence he spent some time getting material for his great drama, "*Lorenzaccio*," and in Venice studying the background for some later work. Suddenly the letters that his friends at home had been regularly receiving, ceased, and for six weeks his mother and brother knew nothing of him. They were about to set out for Italy, when a letter came, in which Alfred told of his having just recovered from a fever, and that he would bring back to them "a sick body, a dejected soul, a bleeding heart, but one that loved them still." His life had been spared through the

skill of a young Italian physician, named Pagello, and the watchful nursing of George Sand.

Meanwhile, Pagello and George Sand had fallen in love, and de Musset, eager to atone for his misconduct towards her, yielded first place to the young doctor. The three now formed a sort of Triple Alliance, of Love, a union that was destined to bring suffering to each of them.

After his return to Paris, for a time he kept his room all day, coming out only in the evening to play a game of chess with his mother. If anyone referred to his trouble, he would retire to his room once more, to remain there, only being drawn forth to listen to his sister's playing on the mandolin. He nursed his grief, wishing to feel its poignancy to the full.

He now began to purge his library, leaving in it nothing of the 18th century. He burned also a number of the pictures that had adorned his walls. Among the writers whose works he retained were Sophocles, Horace, Shakespeare, Byron, Goethe, and the classic French writers of the 17th century.

The return of George Sand to Paris, bringing with her, as she did, Pagello, marked the beginning of new troubles. Scandal mongers had already been busy, and the three could hardly appear together in public without being subjected to insult. Moreover, their mutual relations could never long remain happy. Now it is one, now the other, that complains of indifference, neglect or even positive injury. There is a resolve to part forever. and then, a feeling that they cannot live apart, but will henceforth be mere friends with never a word of love. But the restraint is felt to be too great, and once more their love becomes passionate, only to end in a quarrel and separation. When at last George Sand took a final farewell of de Musset, the latter acknowledged his indebtedness to her in these words, "Look what I was, and see what you have brought me. You have made a man of a child."

In his chief prose work, "Confessions of a Child of the Century," he has given us a faithful picture of his relations with George Sand, not sparing himself his mead of blame. In his poetical works, however, and more especially in that beautiful series of the "Nights," he has breathed forth the better emotions of his soul, picturing with special beauty and tenderness the sadness that often came upon him as the result of disappointment and disillusion. In these, as in his other poetical works, whatever criticism may be laid against him, it must be said that

he was sincere, that the feelings he expresses were what he had really experienced; in fact, when the sadness and sorrow became especially great, he found some measure of relief in song.

The Muse to him was no empty title for poetic inspiration, but a real personality. Conscious of her approach, he would retire to his room, light all the candles, have a little lunch served him, and spend the night thus in communion with the Muse. On the morrow would be found on his table the verses he had written under her inspiration. Then the Muse would leave him again, and for a time all the pleasures of Paris were insufficient to distract his mind. But a pretty face, a picture, a piece of music, would once more dispel the gloom.

Among his fellow-pupils at the College of Henry IV., the poet had as an intimate friend the son of Louis Philippe. During the reign of the latter, on the occasion of Meunier's attempt upon the life of the king, Alfred de Musset called at the palace to present his sincere congratulations for the king's escape. He had previously written a poem on the subject, with no thought of publishing it. However, in the course of time, it found its way into the hands of the young Duke of Orleans, and when de Musset arrived at the palace, the prince had the verses in his pocket. The king had up to this time not seen them. The prince excused himself a moment and went off to read the verses to his father, but soon returned rather sad, the king not having found them to his liking. However, the prince had had the good sense not to reveal the name of the writer. He tried to compensate the author by inviting him frequently to balls at the palace. On one of these occasions, de Musset was introduced to Louis Philippe. "O, yes," said the king warmly, on hearing his name, "You come from Joinville." He had taken the poet for a forester of the same name, who was a keeper on the royal domain. What would have been the feelings of Dean Swift, had he been living in the reign of Edward VII., and been greeted by that monarch, on the occasion of an introduction by the words: "O, yes, I know. You come from Chicago!" being mistaken for the well-known pork packer. Methinks the world would at least have had one more satire from the pen of the dean of St. Patrick's.

De Musset felt the unconscious slur upon his poetical talent, but consoled himself with the hope of a brighter era for literature when the coming years should have brought to the throne the promising Duke of Orleans. The early accidental death of the

latter was one of the saddening features of de Musset's last years.

About this time, we find the poet trying his hand at prose. "The Confessions of a Child of the Century," was followed by "The Caprice," which did not attract much attention in the literary world. Another work, "The Two Mistresses," was interrupted by The Muse of Poetry, and to this interruption we owe the last of the Nights, the Night of October. He began to feel that prose was not a worthy form for his thought and he declares he will write no more of it.

Reference has already been made to the poor reception given de Musset's first drama, "The Venetian Night," on its appearance at the Odeon. The writer had faithfully adhered to his resolve not to write anything more for the stage. However, he had not ceased to write dramas for the reader. Seventeen years later the great actress, Madame Allan, who was playing in St. Petersburg, had her attention drawn to a Russian play, which was attracting considerable notice. She asked for a French translation of it, and was shown the original, which was none other than de Musset's *Caprice*. On her return to Paris, she produced the play in the Comedie Francaise, where it met with a very favorable reception. Other dramatic works by the same author were put upon the boards, and the papers each day contained verses from the same hand. Thus de Musset began to see some of that recognition of his talent which he had missed in his earlier years. Even down to the time when he became a member of the Academy, however, there were many prominent in literary and social circles who were unfamiliar with his works.

It was rather in the younger generation that he had found a sympathetic hearing. He has been rightly called "the poet of youth," for the feelings to which he gives utterance are those that are common to youth, perhaps not always with the same intensity, certainly seldom linked with such power to give them expression, but nevertheless, in essence the same. There is, moreover, in all that he wrote a sincerity, which appeals to the young. Whether we agree with the sentiments to which he gives utterance or not, we are forced to admit that they were his own. He wrote not with the purpose of making a fine story, but because he felt the need for utterance. Like Goethe, he sang "as the bird sings that sits in the branches, the song that gushes from the heart." When he did not feel deeply, it was almost impossible to persuade him

to write. In fact, he often fled to the country to escape the importunities of editors and others urging him to repair his depleted purse by the medium of a new story.

His declining years were tinged with sadness. He had plunged into pleasure with all the intensity of his passionate nature; he had drunk its cup to the lees, and had found the dregs bitter. At thirty he was tired of life and anxious to leave it. His mad career had undermined his health, and in his closing years he sadly watched the ruin of his intellectual power, a ruin he felt unable to check.

Death came at the early age of forty-six. Returning from a dinner at the Palais Royal with the Prince Napoleon, he went to bed, never to rise again. To his brother, who was watching by his side, he said: "Sleep! I am going to sleep." He never awakened. Thus passed away one of whom Taine has said: "He is dead, and yet we seem every day to hear him speak. The chat and pleasantries of artists in a studio, a pretty young girl at the theatre bending over the edge of the box, a street scoured by the rain, and the glitter of the blackened pavements, a fresh cool morning, all smiles, in the Fontainebleau woods—there is nothing that does not bring him back before us, as if living a second life. Was there ever a more thrilling, truer accent? He, at the least, was one who never told any lies. He said only what he felt, and as he felt it, so he said it. He thought aloud. He made everybody's confession. We did not admire him, we loved him; he was a poet—nay more, he was a man."

THE DIRECT METHOD IN THE FRENCH LYCÉE.

PROFESSOR W. H. FRASER.

After some preliminary and partial experiments, extending over a number of years, the Direct Method of teaching foreign modern languages was fully introduced into the French lycée by the ministerial decree of 31st May, 1902. Its introduction formed part of a general reform of secondary education, which included, among other things, more freedom of option in the choice of studies, according as parents desired for their sons a preponderance of classics, of modern languages, or of science. It is perhaps necessary to state that the whole non-professional education of a boy is completed in the lycée, and that, roughly speaking, it corresponds to our public school, high school and university arts courses combined. The full course comprises normally two years in the preparatory school, two years in the elementary school, and six or seven years in the lycée proper, to which this paper refers.

To be intelligible I must now try to define or describe the "Direct Method." It first became a tangible thing in Germany after Viëtor's trumpet-blast of "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!" in 1882. The subsequent literature of exposition and controversy on the subject in Germany and other lands would fill a small library. I cannot enter into the evolution of the system, nor is that necessary, since we are dealing with a specific case. Hence, it will suffice for our purpose here if I describe it in the terms of the French official programme.

In the regulations applying to the lycée, the general scope of modern language teaching is thus defined:—

"The first and principal object of modern language teaching shall be the practical acquisition of the ordinary language. The aim shall be to lead the pupil to speak and write the foreign languages."

In the detailed instructions to the teacher, the method to be followed is summarized in ten propositions, which may be again summarized as follows:—

1. If the classics are studied for mental culture, modern languages are taught with a view to their use. Hence, the general object of such study is to give the pupil a real and practical knowledge of the language.

2. The language to be taught shall be the *langue courante*, i.e., in the wider sense of the term.

3. Since a living language is first and foremost a spoken language, the oral method is the best and shortest, not to the exclusion of text-reading and written exercises, which, however, are to be considered as affording subject-matter and opportunity for oral work.

4. The first task of the teacher shall be to secure a good pronunciation. Hence, he must first cultivate the ear and the vocal organs. The spoken word must precede the written word, in order to avoid the misleading effects of the ordinary orthography. To render the work concrete, the use of real objects, pictures, etc., is recommended at this stage.

5. When a good pronunciation has been secured, the teacher will at his discretion pass on to text-reading, and must henceforth carefully insist on exact pronunciation and intonation.

6. The elements of grammar are to be taught inductively from the oral and written exercises. The systematic study of grammar comes later, and must remain eminently simple and practical.

7. The vocabulary begins with the concrete, is extended gradually to include ordinary terms of the arts, sciences and literature, and excludes technical terms. Constant practice of vocabulary to express thought is enjoined.

8. Both oral and written exercises, adapted to the capacity of the pupil, are to be continued throughout all classes. Subject-matter bearing on the foreign country and the life of its people is to be largely used, and for this purpose maps, views, newspapers, etc., are recommended.

9. The place of a study of the literature is recognized, but is defined as subordinate to that of the spoken language, which remains the final object.

10. Throughout all classes the teacher shall use in the class the language he is teaching, and may have recourse to the vernacular only where indispensable for clearness, brevity or completeness of explanation.

As I have said, this is a summary of a summary. These are, so to say, the ten commandments of the Direct Method in France. But they give no idea of the minute instructions of the French Department of Education, as regards the teacher and his methods. For instance, the detailed description of how he is to proceed with the lower classes (the 6th and 5th) covers five pages. Nothing

is left to chance: the what and the how and the when are minutely indicated, in a line with the general principles above stated. The teacher is told how to deal with vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, conversation, home-work, written exercises, text-books, etc. For the upper classes, the instructions to the teacher are somewhat less detailed, but he is reminded again and again to adhere to the principles of the method. The instructions as a whole constitute a practical treatise on the Direct Method, and those who are interested in the study of teaching methods could not do better than procure the book entitled "*Plan d'études, etc., dans les lycées et collèges des garçons*," (Delalain Frères, Paris), which is also instructive as to the whole French system of secondary education.

The complete course of instruction extends over six years, optionally seven. The teaching periods are a full hour in length. During the first four years, 5 hours a week, out of a total ranging from 22 to 24, are devoted to *one* foreign language. During the remaining two (or three) years, 3 hours a week are devoted to the language already studied, and 4 hours to the new language taken up, out of a total of 24 hours a week in the modern language division.

One may hold perhaps that the French Government goes too far in this matter of detailed regulations and instructions, but it must be remembered that this is characteristically French, an outcome of the French mind which is severely logical and systematic. As a matter of fact, the instructions for the teaching of modern languages are more minute than for other subjects, and this too, has its reason. The introduction of the Direct Method was little short of a revolution, and the duty of applying it in the schools was thrown suddenly on a body of teachers, many of whom were ill-prepared for their new task. For the teacher who had never lifted his eyes from the text-book, who regarded the attainment of the spoken language as both hopeless and useless, whose sole effort was the preparation of his pupils for a written test, some help, much help, was necessary, and in view of the circumstances one can hardly say that the regulations and instructions are overdone.

Having now described the system and the regulations, I propose to give you a few reminiscences regarding my own observations of its working, for which my stay in Paris last year furnished the occasion. I do not attach very much importance to

these observations, and am fully aware that they are much more interesting to myself than they can possibly be to you. They are in no sense to be taken as embodying a judgment, much less a final judgment. I simply tell what I saw.

The first step was to secure the necessary permission at the office of the University of France at the Sorbonne, and having done this I set out, on three successive days, to visit three different lycées, two of them in Paris, and one at Bourg-la-Reine.

In none of the institutions visited was there anything special to note in the way of class-room accommodation or of special aids for the teaching of languages, and this latter fact rather surprised me. The boys were just boys,—some duller, some brighter—as with us; the class-rooms were neither better nor worse than with us, and had also that peculiar school atmosphere, which I think must be the same the world over. Two things might be mentioned: (1) the classes, I think, in no case exceeded thirty; and (2) the master or professor was an official of more dignity and respect than is usually the case on this continent. I was courteously received everywhere, and witnessed the teaching of German and English during seven or eight hour periods, in classes of various stages of progress. However, when I come to describe in any general terms what I saw and heard, I am rather at a loss, since each period was spent with a different teacher. I will say this, that the masters were working hard everywhere, and were keeping within the regulations as I have described them.

I am sorry now that I did not take written notes of what I observed in each class, but I did so in one case and my notes were as follows, in a class of boys from 14 to 16 years of age:—

1. The master read the lesson, consisting of three or four stanzas of poetry.

2. Then the boys recited it from memory in turn, and there was also some recitation in unison by the master and boys.

3. The master asked for volunteers to tell a story, but nobody was ready.

4. The master read a story about a man and a lion, and gave some explanations for those who did not understand fully on the first reading.

5. Then followed an interrogation on the story just read.

6. The remainder of the hour was spent in reading in turn from a book of prose selections.

Among the classes observed was an advanced one in English, under the care of one of the leading exponents of the method and the author of several text-books. This master's English was as near faultless as could well be. He was dealing with a verse selection, part of which had been memorized. His method of extracting the meaning by questions in English was very ingenious and very minute. Every little historical, biographical or geographical detail was exhausted in what seemed to me almost pedantic fashion. The whole hour was spent on one short poem, and certainly the exercises afforded good practice in understanding and using the language. In spite of having so good a master, the pronunciation of the boys was rather disappointing, but they understood readily and answered readily.

In one class the master asked the boys, who were, I think in their third year of German, to relate stories previously learned, and in this exercise they acquitted themselves creditably. I was then invited by the master to address some remarks to the class in German, and they seemed to follow with attention and interest. As a final proof of their proficiency, I related a short anecdote in German which was afterwards reproduced orally in German by one of the better pupils in his own words with success.

One of the most curious things I witnessed was a master teaching German grammar in German. His method evidently was to dictate a paragraph, have it learned over night, and extract it in class next day by question and answer. It was a most strenuous exercise. The master labored and the boys floundered about rather helplessly in a terminology which is hard even for Germans. Many of them relapsed into a semi-comatose condition. The time seemed to me ill-spent and the subject ill-chosen. But what could be done? A knowledge of grammar is required in the higher classes and cannot of course be taught except in German, on peril of breaking the regulations.

Still another example of the difficulties of the method was a class reading Dickens' "Christmas Carol." I never realized before what an exceedingly idiomatic piece of English this is, and I might add, how much out of the ordinary useful line of English idiom. The attempt to extract the meaning wholly in English was hopeless, and the master frequently resorted to taking French translations of the more difficult expressions.

The most interesting class observed was one of beginners, who

had been taking German for about four months. The master was a bi-lingual Alsatian, who addressed the boys with all the vigour of a drill-sergeant training a squad of recruits. He thundered forth his commands:—"aufstehen, an die Tafel gehen, Kreide in die Hand nehmen, schreibe, lese, dich hinsetzen"—in a way that compelled attention; and I must say that, for beginners, the boys evinced a remarkable power of comprehension, and had a surprisingly good pronunciation. Of all the classes observed, this was the only one in which the master kept the attention of the whole class during the whole time. He was a strong man physically, and yet I kept wondering which would fail him first his lungs or his larynx.

But enough of these experiences, which by no possible process can I make your experiences, and which run the risk of becoming tedious. I will rather note three or four general impressions which remained in my mind from what I witnessed:—

1. The method as I saw it in operation requires a great effort on the part of the teacher at all stages. More than one of the masters spoke of this. One complained to me that he felt perfectly exhausted when his day's work in school was over.

2. The method is difficult of application evenly over the whole class. This is true of any method, but with this it seems to me that the gulf between the head-boy and the dunce may become immeasurable in breadth and depth, with the result that the lower half of the class may receive almost no profit from the teaching.

3. The most brilliant results are apparently produced in the initial stages. The pronunciation, for example, did not seem perceptibly better in the higher classes than with the beginners.

4. What struck me most forcibly, however, was the absolute dependence of results on the knowledge and pedagogical skill of the teacher. Even in these three lycées, which are among the best in France, this was markedly illustrated. One teacher in particular was only fairly proficient in the language taught, besides being slow and clumsy, and the results were very meagre. I could not help reflecting on what the condition of things might be in the poorer schools in country towns.

I might add a word here about the text-books employed, and it is curious to observe that a method which is professedly so independent of the printed page should have called forth such an abundance and variety of helpful books. Their number is legion

and many of them are very fine and very costly too (I mean in their typography and illustrations).

You will perhaps ask at this stage whether this new system has proved successful in France, and that question I cannot answer. It has been in full force not yet quite ten years and is considered by many teachers and educationists to be still on trial. But it is worth noting that it is one of the most extensive and daring experiments ever made in pedagogy. In other countries, especially in Germany where it originated, the Direct Method has made its way partially, sporadically and tentatively, but the French, in their usual thorough-going style, have for the present staked everything on its merits. Among teachers, the *question des méthodes* is by no means settled. On the contrary it is very much discussed, and I fancy there is matter in it for many future educational conventions and for numberless articles and pamphlets. For instance it was the principal topic of a congress held in Paris in April, 1909, the proceedings of which were not available to me when writing this paper. I have, however, here an extract from one of the papers there presented, written by Professor Pinloche of the Lycée Michelet, who says:

"The present state of knowledge of our advanced pupils, of those who began their studies since 1902, is a warning which it would be imprudent not to heed. It is too easy to establish that most of them are far from possessing the necessary knowledge of elementary grammar and syntax, not to speak of vocabulary, to the acquisition of which everything else has been sacrificed."

Elsewhere he sums up the matter by saying that while there has been a great gain in understanding and using the spoken language, there exists great poverty of vocabulary, want of precision in its use, general ignorance of grammar and syntax, and consequent inaccuracy. Besides, while admitting that greater taste for reading exists, he complains that pupils read without taking full account of the meaning, and finally that if these pupils do not go abroad after leaving school they soon lose what it took six years to attain.

Now this is a serious arraignment, but remember it represents only the opinion on one side of the question, and I have given it not for the purpose of prejudicing the discussion, but merely in support of my assertion that the method is still on trial.

In view of this difference of opinion amongst those who are applying the method and observing its results at first hand, it

would be rash for me to hazard a conjecture as to its ultimate success in France. It certainly has had a stimulating effect on the teachers themselves, for a teacher is forced to be proficient in the use of the language to hold his position at all. This has caused many teachers to begin their language-learning over again, and many others have gone abroad to perfect their knowledge.

There is one principle which I feel like commending without reservation, and that is use of oral methods, the free use, the frequent and persistent use of oral methods in the class-room. In expressing this opinion now I am but reiterating what I said to this Association more than twenty years ago when I read a paper on "The Eye and Ear in Modern Language Teaching."

If I were asked whether the Direct Method as employed in France could be introduced advantageously into our schools—I mean as a complete system,—I should express myself as extremely doubtful of its success. The difficulties that have been experienced in France exist here in much greater degree, and are not so easy of remedy. But this question I do not propose to discuss just now, and perhaps its introduction is in any case irrelevant.

You will permit me one general reflection on methods, in conclusion. Ready-made methods are dangerous and misleading, especially if imposed from without. There is no such thing as the best method. Methods should grow naturally out of the circumstances, and each teacher must make his own, if he is to be really effective. I do not underrate the study of other people's methods. We have much to learn from an intelligent study of their principles and practice, and indeed the object of this paper is to make a slight contribution to this kind of knowledge. It is our duty to watch experiments which are made elsewhere, and to note their success or failure. Above all, we should never be quite satisfied with our own ways of teaching, and we should constantly remember that any and every method will fail if it has not under it the firm basis of a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught.

FRENCH SUMMER SCHOOLS.

W. C. FERGUSON.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—At the annual meeting of your Executive Committee, when we were preparing the programme for these meetings, I suggested that I should present a short statement to serve as a guide to those teachers who desired to know something of the courses provided by the summer schools of France for foreign teachers. The committee were very polite and assented to my suggestion, with the idea perhaps of not wounding my feelings. So if there is anyone to blame, you must blame me.

It is not my intention therefore, to give you any detailed account of the joint towns of St. Malo and St. Servan, where the course was held, which I attended last year, however attractive that subject might be to myself. At the same time, I do not think that I could pass over the subject in perfect silence; for I do not think that you could find anywhere a more entrancing spot in which to spend a pleasant and inexpensive holiday.

The old town of St. Malo, usually associated in the mind of a Canadian with the name of Jacques Cartier, is situated as you know in Brittany, on the English Channel, just about opposite to the port of Southampton, with which there is daily communication by steamers of the London and South Western Railway. The other way of approach is from Paris, where I happened to be; this route I naturally took. Just about half way between this town and St. Servan, which are about a half mile apart, is the station of the Chemin de fer de l'Ouest, a most desolate-looking place, which gives one an unfavourable idea of the locality, an impression that is removed as soon as you see the ancient-looking old granite walls and picturesque chateau which give an immediate interest to this old city that is proud to be known as the birthplace of Lammenais, Chateaubriand, Jacques Cartier, and also of two old corsairs or pirates, Surcouf and Duguay-Trouin, who brought much fame and incidentally much wealth to their city by the capture of English trading-vessels. Strange to say, our English histories tell us nothing of these characters, who are judged of sufficient importance to have handsome statues erected on the sea-front in their honour. It might be added that this

pirate business was so lucrative that the town was able to make a loan of not less than thirty millions of francs to their liege lord, Louis XIV., when he was once hard up for ready cash. My investigations failed to reveal whether he had paid them back.

The old town, built completely apparently of solid stone, gives one the belief that it will stand, unless overwhelmed by the sea and an earthquake, till the crack of doom. The walls, from ten to twenty feet thick in places, the houses, built usually five or six stories high, the chateau of the Duchess Anne, the sea-dikes, the wharves, the pavements, all are made of stone, brought from neighboring quarries. The quaint narrow streets, the shops with their attractive displays of Breton laces and other wares, make it an ideal place to while away the time. But I would not advise a residence within the walls, but along the sea-shore of Paramé, where good board, *tout compris*, can be had from seven to ten or twelve francs a day. If you care to go a little further inland, you can get the very best of rooms and board from five to eight francs a day.

Within a radius of about five or six miles, there are a number of other very charming spots. On the promontory, immediately opposite to the one on which St. Malo is situated, is the fashionable bathing-place, known as Dinard, much frequented by the upper ten of England and France. Further along the coast, and joined to St. Malo by a little steam railway, are Paramé, Rothéneuf, Cancale and St. Servan. It is in the college of the latter place that the summer school is held, under the joint patronage of the University of Rennes and the Alliance Française.

The courses are three in number, the Cours Élémentaire, intended largely for beginners, the Cours Intermédiaire, arranged especially for those who are engaged in teaching French, and the Cours Supérieur, for students of literature. Although I followed in special the Cours Intermédiaire, I went also, as was my privilege, into some of the other courses. There were about twenty students in the Elementary Course, when I went in to see what was being done. The teacher in charge of the class was a dapper little man, M. Dujardin, who showed very considerable skill and tact in imparting his explanations. The work, which was wholly in French, was based on a little book, entitled, "*Petit Livre de Lecture et d'Elocution*," by P. Quilici et V. Baccus, published by Hachette et Cie., Paris. This little book, while intended for the use of pupils in the primary schools of France, would be found

a most valuable one to our own teachers, not only for material in teaching classes, but also in supplementing their own vocabulary with the names of all common things and actions. If I were to criticise the work done in this class, it would be that too much of it was done by the teacher and too little by the student.

The Intermediate Course, which I pursued throughout the entire month, was divided into two sections, of about 25 persons each, and the lessons were, of course, repeated.

There was first a series on Elementary Phonetics, conducted by Mr. P. Gohin, who made use of one of the texts of the International Phonetic Association. Before taking this book, however, he gave an explanation, all too brief and none too clear, of the symbols and of the sounds that they represent. The natural result was that quite a number of students were floundering about, not understanding very well what was going on. In addition he had typewritten sheets, that he himself had prepared on the study of the vowels, the letters *l*, *r*, *d*, the *liaison* and other difficulties. The drill which he conducted on these was, I think, exceedingly profitable, for the teacher was both careful and painstaking.

The next part of the course consisted of Conversation and Composition, and was taken by Mr. Leroy, of the College of St. Servan. The conversations were on familiar subjects, interspersed with readings and commentaries by teacher and student, narration of stories or experiences, and little instructive lectures on the manners and customs of Brittany. M. Leroy is a very able instructor, quick, witty and original, with a fund of good-humour and patience. He articulated so clearly and adapted his language so skillfully to his hearers, that it seemed impossible to miss his meaning. He devoted a great deal of attention to the imparting of phrases and idioms which were perhaps unknown to the class, always illustrating by clever remarks. Altogether he was a most satisfactory instructor, from the standpoint of an English student.

Most interesting of all, however, was, I think, Mr. F. Gohin, Doctor of Laws and Laureate of the French Academy, whose lectures were principally on his native country, its beauty and riches, its town and country life, industry and trades, army and navy, and other interesting topics, presented in language that was always elegant and choice, and rose very often with the fervour of the speaker to truly poetic periods. At the conclusion he always questioned his listeners, or asked them for a résumé of what they

had heard. On the whole, I must, for my own part, say that I found the Course to be most helpful and instructive, and that I would recommend it very highly to our teachers.

I cannot speak with authority of the Higher Course, for of necessity I could not attend both courses, but I think it is sufficient to say that by far the greater number attending took it. The lectures on French language and literature, in charge of Mr. A. Fettu, of the University of Rennes, and Mr. P. Rolland, of the Lycée Buffon of Paris, were the subject of great praise on the part of those who spoke to me about them.

The lectures were given daily, including Saturdays, from nine o'clock to twelve, the last hour being devoted to a course in reading and elocution, open to all students. This was conducted by Mr. E. Siviude, himself a dramatic writer of merit, who illustrated his theory by sympathetic reading of passages from the works of Molière, Racine, Corneille, Victor Hugo, La Fontaine, Rostand and others.

Our afternoons were free, and for the benefit of those fond of sight-seeing, excursion were arranged to points of interest in the neighborhood, such as Mont St. Michel, Mont Dol, Combourg, etc. As the whole of Brittany is so full of interest, there is no chance of time hanging heavily on your hands.

The cost of spending two months in this part of France is not nearly so great as one is apt at first to think, provided, of course, that you are modest in your ideas in regard to the spending of your hard-earned wealth. From my own experience, I am sure that it would not be difficult to go from Toronto to St. Malo, stay there for at least six weeks, pay your \$10 for the summer course, make excursions to many points of interest, leave no bad debts as a souvenir behind you, and out of \$300, bring back with you sufficient money to be re-admitted to your own country.

For the benefit of those teachers who may have the desire and opportunity to take one of these Vacation Courses, I have collected a fund of information, which I shall endeavour to condense into a convenient form.

The Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland, whose offices are at 74 Gower Street, London, W.C., arrange annually for four holiday courses, at Honfleur in France, at Neuwied and Lübeck in Germany, and at Santander in Spain. These are all begun during the first week in August, and last for three weeks, announcement of the exact date being given in a handbook, which is

furnished for sixpence after March 25th, on application to the address given. The cost is estimated to be, at Honfleur, about \$60, at Neuvi  , about \$55, at Lubeck, about \$55, and at Santander about \$80. The Courses include Lectures, and Classes in Conversation, Phonetics, Reading, Dictation and Composition. The handbook contains full information in regard to lodgings, books to be studied, examinations, certificates, etc.

Another course is under the auspices of the *Guilde Internationale*, whose offices are at 6, Rue de la Sorbonne, Paris. The one for 1911, is divided into three periods, July 3 to 29, August 1 to 26, and September 1 to 27. They also issue a little book, containing full information about the sort of work taken up, boarding-houses, etc., to be had for the asking. I attended some of their lectures when in Paris last July, and found them most attractive. One great advantage that they have is that you are right among the scenes which are so often the theme of the lectures.

This course is recommended very highly by several of our Toronto teachers who have attended it, not only for the point just noted, but also on account of the individual attention, which is given to the student; an advantage that is not so possible in that of the *Alliance Fran  aise*, owing to the larger numbers who attend the latter course.

The Scottish Education Department, Whitehall, London, S.W., Eng., also issue for the benefit of their teachers, a table of holiday courses, which they will send to you on application. However, with the canny spirit characteristic of their race, they decline to vouch for the efficiency of the instruction given. But the little book contains a great deal of extremely useful information. Another book, issued by the English Board of Education, may be obtained from Messrs Eyre & Spottiswoode, Government Printers, London, E.C., for the sum of 2d.

From these I have selected several prospectuses, about which I have received information from English or Scottish teachers, whom I consulted this summer, and whose opinion I consider of value.

At Lisieux there is held a course which is under the patronage of the *Alliance Fran  aise*, from July 3rd to August 26th. Special rates are given from Southampton to Havre, and from Havre to Lisieux. The cost of the instruction is 50 francs, and the cost of *pension* per day is from 5 francs a day upward. The secre-

tary of the course is Mr. Féquet, 12, Rue de Rouen, Lisieux, France. The work undertaken is similar to that of other schools, but the conversation circles consist of groups of seven persons each, an arrangement which is said to work out exceedingly well. Excursions and social evenings are also a special feature of this course.

The course at Rouen will be held this year from July 3rd to August 26th. The fees vary according to the time that the student wishes to attend, from 15 francs for a week to 100 francs for the two months. Passage from England is by way of New Haven and Dieppe. For complete information you should write to M. Chevaldin, 23, Rue Bouquet, Rouen. This course has been most highly recommended to me, as one which is admirably conducted, and has, as one of its most interesting features, an historical study of the ancient architecture for which the city is so celebrated. The cost of living, as in the case of the places already mentioned, is from 6 francs a day upward.

Those who wish to go to Besançon will write to M. le Secrétaire de l'Université de Besançon, 10, Rue de la Convention, for their prospectus. Special lectures are given on literary, commercial, and scientific subjects.

At Dijon special arrangements are made for ladies who are accommodated at the *Maison d'Accueil* at the modest charge of 60 francs a month. Four hours of instruction are given per day, and visits planned to the many points of interest of a city that is especially rich in artistic and historic curiosities. The secretary is M. Ch. Lambert, Professor à l'Université, Rue Viollet-le-Duc.

At Nancy the holiday courses are held from July to November, at the small fee of 40 francs for the first six weeks, and 10 francs for each subsequent month. A special inducement which they advertise is a Professor of Phonetics and laboratory with phonograph for practical instruction. The secretary is Monsieur Laurent, à l'Université de Nancy.

A course is held at Boulogne-sur-Mer, from August 1st to 31st, under the auspices of the University of Lille, with the approval of the Alliance Française, specially to meet the needs of English teachers. For those who prefer to spend the holidays at the seaside, there is no more charming spot to be found in France. Those who wish full information are asked to write to Monsieur Mis, 145, Boulevard Victor Hugo, Lille.

The Alliance Française provides a special course at Paris during the months of July and August. For the sum of 55 francs one may attend for one month, and for 100 francs for the two months. Address M. le Secrétaire, l'Alliance Française, 186, Boulevard St. Germain.

Courses are also held at the following places in France: Grenoble, Versailles, Bayeux, Granville-sur-Mer, and Caen; in Switzerland, at Geneva, Lausanne and Neuchâtel. I should be pleased at any time to give any further information in my possession to any enquirer.

Let me say in conclusion that it is the usual custom of the English and Scottish Boards of Education, which correspond to our Department of Education, to pay the travelling expenses of those teachers who are willing to attend these summer schools and present a certificate of attendance. Why could not a reasonable number of such scholarships, say 10 each year of the value of \$100 each, be offered by the Department to such as would be willing to spend three months at their own further expense in France or Germany? What would such a sum be to the Province of Ontario in comparison with the subsequent efficiency and enthusiasm of the teachers who would have profited thereby?

NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

CHEMISTRY COURSE FOR MIDDLE SCHOOL

ARTHUR SMITH—PARKDALE COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

Evidences of Reaction.

1. Solution of sulphuric acid in water.
2. Solution of ammonium nitrate in water.
3. Solution of potassium permanganate in water.
4. Reactions with litmus.
5. Sodium on water.
6. Potassium on water.
7. Burning of phosphorus in air.
8. Burning of magnesium in air.
9. Sulphuric acid on zinc.
10. Nitric acid on copper.
11. Heating of mercuric oxide.
12. Potassium chloride solution on silver nitrate solution.
13. Heating of potassium chlorate.
14. Electrolysis of water.

Oxygen.

1. Preparation and collection using:
Potassium chlorate and manganese dioxide.
2. Properties.
 - (a) Colour, etc.
 - (b) Burning in it of carbon, etc.
 - (c) Solubility in pyrogallate of potash.
3. Occurrence, Uses, etc.
4. Equations.

Hydrogen.

1. Preparation and collection using:
 - (a) Sodium and water.
 - (b) Potassium and water.
 - (c) Magnesium and water.
 - (d) Iron and water.
 - (e) Zinc and sulphuric acid.
2. Properties:
 - (a) Colour, etc.
 - (b) Burning: (1) In air; (2) In oxygen; (3) mixed with oxygen.
 - (c) Is it lighter than air?
3. Are there other methods of preparing it?
4. Occurrence, Uses, etc.
5. Equations.

Oxidation and Reduction.

1. Burning of magnesium.
2. Heating of potassium chlorate.
3. Heating of mercuric oxide.
4. Reaction between hydrogen and copper oxide.
5. Reaction between hydrogen and ferric oxide.

Classification.

Compounds and Elements.

Definite Proportions and Indefinite Proportions.

- (1) Burning of magnesium.
- (2) Reduction of potassium chlorate.
- (3) Gravimetric synthesis of water.
- (4) Volumetric analysis of water.
- (5) Volumetric synthesis of water.
- (6) Neutralization.
- (7) Salt solution.

Chemical and Physical Reactions.

Formulae and Equations.

Chemical Equivalents.

Law of Reciprocal Proportions.

Chemical Symbols and Formulae.

1. Chemical equivalents in symbolic form.
2. Formulae based on (1).
3. What a formula of a solid may represent.
4. Calculation of formula, given the composition.
5. What a formula of a gas may represent.
6. Gas density.
7. Calculation of formula of a gas.

Ionization.

1. Equivalence of ions.
2. Names, given the formulae.
3. Formulae, given the names.
4. Basicity of acids: acid salts.

Law of Conservation of Mass.

Equations.

Problems.

Reversible Reactions.

Rate of Reactions.

Chlorine.

1. Salt: its interaction with sulphuric acid.
2. Hydrogen chloride.
 - (a) Preparation and collection.
 - (1) Colour, solubility, etc.
 - (2) The solution in water, etc., and properties.
 - (3) Oxidation of hydrochloric acid by manganese dioxide, etc.
3. Chlorine.
 - (a) Preparation and collection using salt and sulphuric acid and manganese dioxide.
 - (b) Direct combinations.
 - (c) Formation of hydrogen chloride.
 - (1) By direct union with hydrogen.
 - (2) By decomposing turpentine, paraffine, etc.
 - (3) By decomposing water.
 - (d) Bleaching.
 - (e) Action on potassium hydroxide and sodium hydroxide.
 - (f) Bleaching powder.

Carbon.

Occurrence of element in natural and artificial forms; some properties.

Carbon dioxide.

1. Preparation. (See Oxygen).
2. Preparation and Collection.
 - (a) Is it combustible or a supporter of combustion?
blazing splinter, gas jet, coal oil, magnesium.
 - (b) Is it soluble in water, in sodium hydroxide, in potassium hydroxide?
 - (c) Action on lime water, on baryta water.
 - (d) Is it heavier than air?
 - (e) Action on hot carbon.
 - (f) Is it present in air, in smoke, etc.?

*Carbon Monoxide.**Acetylene.**Sulphur.*

1. The element.
2. Hydrogen sulphide.
3. Sulphur dioxide.
4. Sulphur trioxide.
5. Sulphuric acid.

Nitrogen.

1. Element.
2. Ammonia.
3. Nitric acid.
4. Decomposition products of nitric acid and nitrates.

*Halogens.**Calcium Group.**Law of Multiple Proportions.**Law of Reacting Weights.**Solubility of Gases.**Air.*

The above is Mr. A. Smith's abstract for the report.

F. J. JOHNSTON, *Secretary.*

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

THE PLACE OF ARITHMETIC ON THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

BY PROF. WILLIAM J. PATTERSON, M.A.

To teachers of mathematics looking back over a period of twenty-five years, the title of this paper may appear somewhat utopian, as, in fact, it appeared to the writer when first he saw it in print. Many changes have occurred in these years, some of greater and some of less importance to the educational world. Many discoveries have been made and inventions found out, some by the aid of arithmetic and more without. The Golden Rule has been re-discovered. The elixir of life has, at last, been found. Not only has air been liquefied, but the human soul has also been liquefied and made an article of commercial value. The educational air-man has appeared in the heavens, if not on the earth, and the end is not yet.

But seriously, what is the place of arithmetic on the High School curriculum? Twenty-five years ago, and in even more recent years, it occupied a very important place, perhaps slightly more important than it deserved. It appealed to the practical aims of life that then prevailed and lent itself readily to examination purposes. People were content to know a few things and to know them well, or at least relatively so.

But, for some years, arithmetic has felt the pressure of the claims of other intellectual interests in our High Schools, and has gradually been pushed from its pedestal. The process of displacement has been gradual and almost imperceptible at times, but its cumulative result has become very considerable in the end. The main steps in the process may be outlined as follows:

- (1) The widening of the field of educational aim and interest.

(2) The re-adjustment of educational emphasis to meet the claims of (i.) other departments of mathematics, *e.g.*, algebra and geometry; (ii.) languages; (iii.) the sciences; (iv.) the fine arts.

(3) The growing conviction among theoretical educationists, at least, is that, for the average person, the study of arithmetic is utilitarian rather than cultural. It must be admitted even by mathematicians that there is some force in this contention, though perhaps less than its advocates claim for it. The study of arithmetic must still rank high as a means of mental discipline and as an aid to clear thinking on quantitative relations. But the highest disciplinary culture can be secured only by an intensive study of the subject. The kind of study few are able and willing to undertake.

(4) A dawning conviction that mathematical ability is a special intellectual endowment. The history of mathematics and of the lives of mathematicians proves beyond a doubt that great mathematical ability is usually conjoined with great linguistic, logical, scientific and often theological ability. The mathematical mind is the most energetic type of mind. It is, on that account, frequently, though not always, characterized by a seeming lack of social sympathy which may, in time, become habitual and real.

(5) The tendency of our educational authorities to mould our educational methods on the models of other countries, particularly on those of the United States. From this source sprang the attempt to relegate arithmetic to the place of comparative insignificance it now occupies with us. The measure is not bad because it originated in the United States, nor are we warranted in judging it good because it finds favor there. A very casual observation of mathematical operations in the schools of the United States, even the New England States, will convince a mathematician that accuracy and dispatch are not characteristic of those operations. We, in Ontario, appear to be assimilating very rapidly to the likeness of our big cousins in this respect.

This brings us to consider the place arithmetic now occupies with us. Were we disposed to be poetic we might exclaim, "How are the mighty fallen?" "But yesterday the word of Caesar might have stood against the world; Now lies he there, and none so poor to do him reverence!" But Caesar's shade will not be laid,

And oft when battle's nigh,
Through Memory's hall resounds the call,—
"Meet me at Philippi."

In speaking of the place arithmetic should occupy on the High School curriculum, I shall quote the opinions of gentlemen better qualified than I to speak on this matter. When the secretary of this section asked me to contribute something to the programme, I mailed three questions to each of the Mathematical Masters of the Normal Schools and to the heads of the mathematical departments in the Ontario Schools of Practical Science, with a request for information on this subject. The questions were (1) Is the present High School course in Arithmetic a satisfactory basis for professional (or scientific) training in the subject? (2) What, in your opinion, are the defects, if any, and what remedy do you suggest? (3) Are you in favor of replacing arithmetic on the examination for entrance to the Normal Schools (or Schools of Science)?

Of the six Normal School Masters who replied to my questions, five answered the first question with an unqualified "no," the sixth answered "no, but *quite* as satisfactory as under former regulations."

To the second question a variety of answers were received. Some pointed out defects in method, more laid stress on the need for greater definiteness of aim in teaching the subject and bringing it more into line with actual conditions in life; in a word, making the teaching more concrete. But the greater number emphasized the fact that *too little time* was given to the subject in the High Schools, that it was dropped from one to two years before the student entered the Normal School, that, as it was not an examination subject, it was apt to be slighted in comparison with examination subjects, and that frequently it was handed over to teachers who were not specially qualified to teach it thoroughly. The consequence of all this is that students enter the Normal Schools poorly prepared in the subject, often having almost forgotten the little they once knew. The time at the disposal of the Normal Master makes it impossible to undertake a thorough review of the subject, with the consequence that teachers are going out to take charge of our Public Schools, very poorly prepared in many cases, for teaching it. Five out of the six Normal Masters answered the third question with an emphatic "yes," and one with an equally emphatic "no." Of the two replies received from the Schools of Science, one was somewhat non-committal, while the other was very decidedly in favor of aiming at securing greater accuracy in simple mechanical

operations, advocated replacing arithmetic on the examination test and suggested that students preparing for a course in practical science should become acquainted with contracted methods of multiplication and division and with the elementary theory and applications of logarithms. The writer of this paper desires to convey his cordial thanks to the gentlemen who have kindly put so much valuable information at his disposal. It is the most satisfactory evidence he could desire that the discussion of this subject he has consented to introduce is timely and of vital importance.

The results of our enquiry seem to point clearly to the need of restoring arithmetic to its former place on the curriculum of the Middle School, and that it should be taught with a view to meeting the special needs of prospective public school teachers and students of practical science. Even if it were found necessary to discontinue it for a year in those schools where the teachers' course and junior matriculation course occupy four years, it should be resumed in the year preceding examination for entrance to the Normal Schools and Schools of Science. This can be accomplished by allowing two half-hour periods a week throughout the year to the subject, one of which should be devoted to teaching and oral practice of fundamental principles and the other to the practical applications of those principles. For this purpose the school year might be divided into two equal parts. During the first half the teaching could be the same for both classes of students. The treatment of the subject should be extensive and should consist of (1) a thorough review of the fundamental operations of arithmetic with the purpose of developing speed and accuracy; (2) a careful revision of the principles and practice of commercial arithmetic, according to good modern usage; (3) a more detailed treatment of the prescribed course in mensuration, with special reference to the derivation of formulae, and rapid and accurate computations. Wherever advantageous, contracted methods of multiplication, division and extraction of square root should be taught and employed in practice.

During the second half-year, the work of the two classes should be distinct and intensive in character. The prospective teacher should pursue a course which lays stress on the principles underlying the fundamental processes with special reference to the needs of public school

teachers. With such special training immediately preceding her entrance to the Normal School, the teacher-in-training is prepared to profit by the professional instruction given by the Normal Master in the subject. His time and effort would not then be wasted, as it frequently now is, in doing foundation work in theoretical arithmetic.

The student preparing for a career in practical science should learn the extraction of the cube root, extend his knowledge of the formulae employed in mensuration with more difficult applications, and learn the elementary principles and use of logarithms.

During this final year, no home exercises should be given in the subject. Instead, every alternate half-hour of the two half-hour periods a week should be devoted to practice in doing prescribed exercises in class, under the teacher's supervision, and in permanent exercise books, as is now the custom in physics and chemistry. These exercises could be examined and graded, or valued according to a scale of values which would put due emphasis upon neatness and accuracy. The motive of the exercise could be varied from day to day, according to the varying needs of the class, and values assigned accordingly.

Such a permanent record of the students' class work would serve many useful purposes in educational economy. It might be made the basis of public and private reports on the standing and progress of the student. It would afford the teacher the means of observing and correcting the peculiar defects of individual work. It would serve as the basis of review for final examination. With the teacher's or pupil's own corrections of errors recorded on the margin, it would serve as a very convenient book of reference in after professional life. Finally, it would keep before the mind of the student the importance of doing one's best every day.

Such, in outline, is what appears the most likely way of overcoming the lack of mental grasp of principles and of accuracy and speed in practice of which we hear so frequent and loud complaint. We need scarcely hope to completely eradicate the evil complained of; but improvement is much to be desired, and with the adoption of rational methods *patiently* and *persistently* followed, improvement is sure to follow.

NOTES ON MATHEMATICS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

J. A. HOUSTON, M.A.

I appear before you to-day at the personal request of your President, who is an old friend, and for whom I would do much. My subject has been chosen for me. I have had nothing to do with its selection. I have been asked to give a sort of running commentary on my observations on Mathematics as I find them in the schools, making myself, as it were, a means of intercommunication amongst the teachers, stating what I have seen, that it might be of interest for them to know, and at the same time pointing out where I think improvement might be made.

I can assure you it is a sincere pleasure to meet the members of the Mathematical section, many of whom I have known intimately for years, and others of whom I have met during my visits to the schools in the last three years. In the time spent in the Mathematical classes I have had many half hours of genuine enjoyment, either listening to the work done by the teachers, or taking the class myself, for I must confess there is nothing I like much better than to get hold of an average class of pupils and see what they can do.

No man can satisfactorily adopt another's method in detail. To attempt it would be to give up his own individuality and make himself a mere machine for producing results. We have mathematical teachers of all kinds, some as nearly perfection in methods and aims as it is possible to become in one lifetime; but it must be confessed that there are those of whom this could not be said without such a stretch of imagination as would strain veracity almost to the breaking point. While I shall speak then of methods which I have seen, I shall not go into any special details. To do so would be wasted time. Each must work out details, according to condition and requirements of his classes.

In our treatment of mathematics in the secondary schools, we should have constantly in mind two main objects, (1) the training, strengthening, and increasing of the mental power of the pupil, and (2) the placing him in the possession of such mathematical knowledge as will enable him to meet the requirements of an examination test or of a position in which such mathematical knowledge would be needed. I have seen many cases in which the mere passing of the examination seemed to be the only aim or ideal

placed before the pupil. A problem in arithmetic would be considered only as something to be solved; the method of solving would be shown, carefully worked out on the black board; the pupil would be warned to recognize this same type of problem, and remember how it had been solved; a number of similar problems would be given to fix the method in mind, and the teacher would apparently consider that he had done his whole duty in the case. The whole scheme seemed to be, "memorize the type and learn to recognize how and when to apply it." I am not exaggerating, I have given you just what I have seen. The mistake was made in the teacher's thinking of "passing the examination," and not of the mental growth and training of the pupils. He was working with the wrong object in view, and when failure came he would be very much disappointed.

Even from an examination point of view, pupils will do better if they have been taught to work from first principles, than if they have learned to work problems from type forms. They are independent of memorizing, and have not to face the difficulty of applying the proper type. Hamblin Smith's works on Statics, as compared with Kirkland's, will illustrate what I mean. The former gave the formulae and then applied them to the problems, the latter worked the problems from first principles, each problem being to a great extent reasoned out by itself. There is no doubt which plan produced the strongest and most independent students. You will understand that I have been referring entirely to the solution of problems, and not to the use of type-forms in elementary Algebra. As Kipling says, "that is another story."

You would scarcely believe how often the remark is made to me, "They should have known that, I went over it very carefully." The difficulty in such a case often arises from the idea, common with young teachers, that when some point has been taught so as to be clearly understood by the pupils, all that is necessary has been done. Constant repetition and review are absolutely necessary. Class questioning and grinding is still required. Our present text-books in Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry, recognize this fact, and are so constructed that three-fourths of the work can be done without need of using either pencil or chalk to any great extent. A further advantage of this class work is that all the pupils can be kept on the alert, all are working at once. The multiplying of two binomials or the factoring of the difference of two squares are simple examples of what I refer to.

A point which should receive special attention is rapidity and accuracy in arithmetical operations. I am of the opinion that not enough systematic training along this line is given during the first year in school. The teacher naturally wishes to get over his course, but there is such a thing as advancing too rapidly. I saw an excellent exercise in rapid addition. The blackboard was filled with columns of figures; a boy was called to his feet; the metronome was set in motion; with each tick the teacher pointed to a digit; the boy added aloud, the class silently; if the boy made a mistake there was a shout of the correct answer from the class. All were interested and working and if any fellow seemed asleep, he was the next one called to his feet. This was done regularly and systematically for a time, and I need scarcely say the general result was all that could be desired.

A suggestion as to working "percentage." Those who train their pupils to use "per cent." merely as a special form of fraction secure the best results. To a great extent they avoid the very common error of treating "per cent." as if it were a concrete unit. "Let cost price=100 per cent." is a very dangerous statement, and is apt to lead the pupil into many inconsistencies and difficulties even if it does produce the required answer. I have seen these statements on a blackboard as part of a teacher's explanations to a class: " $2=100$ per cent.": " 100 per cent.=4000"; " 220 per cent.= $\frac{4000}{100} \times 220=\8800 "; "A does 10 per cent. in 1 day," etc., etc. Treating "per cent." as a fraction has the further advantage of correlating algebra and arithmetic, shewing them to be different branches of the same subject, one general, the other particular, and shewing that the same plan of reasoning serves in both.

Our text-book in Arithmetic indicates the connection between "per cent." and fractions in the introductory exercises on percentage, and it will pay well to emphasize the connection by plenty of class grinding, so that assuming the pupil knows what a fraction is he will also know, when he has learned a bit of new vocabulary, that "per cent." means nothing new, but that it is simply an old friend in a new dress. He will also realize that this friend has not really changed, but has changed only in appearance.

A most excellent exercise which I have seen in classes in arithmetic is requiring the pupil to indicate the answer to a given question without actually working it out. A few illustrations will make my meaning clear. Given the following problem:—"If 500

shares of 6 per cent. stock are sold at $104\frac{7}{8}$, and the proceeds invested in 8 per cent. stock at $124\frac{7}{8}$, find change in income, brokerage each way being $\frac{1}{8}$." I give the work practically as I heard it.

What was the first income? 500 times \$6, or \$3,000.

What price was realized from each share of stock sold? $\$104\frac{3}{4}$ or \$104.75.

What was total price received? 500 times \$104.75.

What was actual cost of each new share bought? \$125.

What was the number of shares bought? $\frac{104\frac{3}{4} \times 500}{125}$

What was the income from each new share? \$8.

What was the new income? $\frac{104\frac{3}{4} \times 500}{125}$ times \$8, or $\$8 \times \frac{104\frac{3}{4} \times 500}{125}$

What is the gain or loss in income? The difference of the incomes.

You will notice that such exercises pre-suppose a knowledge of the terms used, and are a perfect test of such knowledge. Questions can be asked regarding reasons if found necessary. Questions 5 and 7 require concentrated thought and a retention of answers already given, but with the problem in print this presents no serious difficulty.

Again to illustrate:—"What should I pay a broker for buying for me \$5000 of 6 per cent. stock at 108, brokerage being 1-2 per cent.?"

1. How many shares did he buy for me? 50.

2. What would be my income 50 times \$6.

3. What was the actual cost of each share to me? \$108.50.

4. Total cost of stock to me? 50 times \$108.50.

5. What was brokerage on 1 share? $\$1\frac{1}{2}$ or 50c.

6. What was the total brokerage? 50 times 50c., or \$25.

7. The income was what fraction of the investment? $\frac{6}{108\frac{1}{2}}$ of the investment.

8. What rate did I make on my money? $\frac{6}{108\frac{1}{2}}$ of 100 per cent.

You will notice there is a constant searching as to fundamental knowledge. The ground work is being always tested, and one is able to detect weakness, or lack of understanding of the business methods involved. Long operations are eliminated for the time being. The special information asked for is given just as would be done in questions in History or Literature. A class trained in this way would never be "caught" by such a problem as the

above, and would not give themselves extra labor by an endeavour to use in their solution all the data given. The same problems can be used again and again for a class exercise of this kind.

Lay good foundations. I have seen much time lost through pupils not having clear definite ideas of the terms they were using, though these same terms had been fully explained. Without warning try your classes on the meaning of "terms of an expression," "rectangle," "factors," and you may find yourself disagreeably surprised. Accept only a perfectly correct answer. I saw a deduction being tried, the solution of which depended on the pupil's knowledge of the word "parallelogram." From the answers given I doubted the definiteness of this knowledge and asked for a definition. At least half a dozen different answers were given. In another case the pupil could state the relation amongst the sides of a right angled triangle, but could not tell how it was to be practically applied. When a thing has been taught it should be crystallized into words, or a statement, and then reviewed until it becomes a part of the pupil's being, so that he could not forget it if he would. I think this is true, not only of all definitions, but also of many rules of operation. For example, I would not hesitate a moment to give a pupil the rule for finding the area of a triangle when three sides are given, "From half the sum of the sides subtract each side separately, multiply together the half sum and the three remainders and take the square root of the product," and at the same time explain to him that the reason for the rule could not be given him until he had made further advance in his Geometry. It is somewhat like memorizing a beautiful passage in poetry, even if the full beauty is not appreciated at first.

In one school I was very much struck with the neatness of the work the pupils were doing in their mathematical scribblers. I made an examination of the scribblers in all the classes and I found all were alike neat. I watched the pupils at work, there was no feverish hurry, but a calm deliberate method of working, not slow by any means. These were senior pupils; the neatness of work, insisted upon in the lower forms, had become a habit. It tended largely to accuracy in both thinking and working, and the reflex influence was beneficial in producing correct results which would more than pay for the little extra time taken, to say nothing of the good habit formed. I may say in passing that the school referred to has a high reputation for turning out good students in

all departments, and from a material point of view the training given in neatness returned more than a hundred per cent. upon the time invested.

I have been pleased to see that what one might call the Laboratory Method of teaching mathematics, is being constantly used. Physical apparatus, models, mechanical drawing, paper folding, cross section paper, actual measurements, are all largely employed in the lower forms, and the results are excellent, especially in the way of rendering the acquired knowledge definite.

I am of the opinion that we have too much home-work, written work, and blackboard work in Mathematics. Correct methods of putting down the work must be taught, but I am convinced many of us do too much of it. If there is a definite reason for making pupils write down any piece of work, by all means have them do it, but do not do it just to keep them employed. I have seen a class sent to the board just because there seemed to be nothing else to do at the moment. The time might have been much more profitably spent in a good sharp class grind, either on the lesson of the day, or in the nature of a review. Taking advantage of occasions of this kind has the effect of rousing the pupils' pride to show that they can meet such a test; it is a constant stimulus to more thorough work.

Make every class exercise in mathematics, an exercise in oral composition. Clearness of thought should produce accuracy of expression. Accept only answers that are perfectly correct. The excuse, "I know it but I cannot say it," should find no place in the mathematical class. The reply should be, "If you know it, then learn to say it." A word to the wise is sufficient.

While there is plenty of opportunity for wooden, machine work in the teaching of mathematics, I am pleased to bear witness to the fact that the great majority of the mathematical teachers have sufficient knowledge and skill to keep their work above the level of mere rote learning or mere mechanical applications of axioms and rules. They realize to the full that in their department they have the means of furnishing disciplinary training, which should produce neatness, accuracy, appreciation of symmetry and proportion, creative imagination, reverence for truth, power of grasping a situation, and almost everything which goes to form a strong independent individuality.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

A RETROSPECT.

BY WM. LINTON, GALT, PRESIDENT PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

As this is our Jubilee Year it seems a fitting time to take a glance at some of the educational changes that have taken place in the Province of Ontario, during the past half century.

Ten years after the formation of this Association, a new era dawned on our Educational System. The standard for teachers' certificates was made much more difficult, a public school curriculum embracing a number of new subjects was introduced. the superintendents of schools were disqualified and the schools were subjected to a kind of inspection almost identical to that which obtains to-day.

That this was a change for the better, especially in so far as the inspection of schools is concerned, cannot well be questioned. Many of the superintendents prior to 1871 were clergymen, and though not a few of them were possessed of scholarly attainments they were lacking in that technical training which is so necessary to a proper performance of the duties pertaining to the office, and their work in many instances was neither an inspiration to the teacher nor to the pupil.

The new system demanded men of literary qualifications, especially along lines of value to the public schools, and of years of practical experience as teachers. The men then selected were thoroughly qualified and they went about their work in an earnest and systematic manner and quite a number of the worthies appointed 40 years ago are still at work and have during all those years been doing valiant service for the state, and in the eventide are overflowing with earnestness, energy and vigor. The work done by them during those four decades has been of immense consequence in moulding the character of the people and determining their destiny. Their semi-annual visits have been a spur to the careless or incapable teacher and a great assistance to the one earnestly endeavoring to further the best interests of his school.

The raising of the standard for teachers' certificates had also a most beneficial effect. It was immediately followed by an

educational wave which passed over the province. In the decade between '71 and '81, teachers would gather into groups on Saturdays and many a knotty problem, particularly in mathematics, was grappled, and so enthusiastic were they that the victor in these intellectual contests was a veritable hero, a god among the lesser stars. Where is there to be found such earnestness and enthusiasm now?

Whether over-loading the curriculum was in the best interests of education may well be doubted. Certainly teachers took the matter seriously in the seventies and many a good honest, ambitious teacher worked far longer than the legitimate school hours in his endeavor to fulfil the requirements of the course of studies. Almost every branch of study was upon the course except Literature, which was ushered in some time later. During this period occurred a great revival of the study of mathematics, brought about mainly through Dr. McLellan. It doubtless did good and served a useful purpose, but it went too far and the time given to it in our public and secondary schools seriously interfered with the teaching of other subjects, probably quite as important.

During that period we had but one text-book on each subject, and had little drawing and less literature until about '77 or '78, whilst the study of grammar was confined mainly to analysis and parsing. Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry were supreme. This was the heyday of their prosperity. Literature, even for teachers' certificates, until about '75, did not find a place. A reconstruction was needed and a reconstruction was made, which, like most of our educational changes, was too sweeping and radical.

At a single bound we went from an over-crowded curriculum to one that was most flexible and accommodating. Instead of being compelled to use one text-book in each subject, each teacher, or rather each Board of Trustees, determined what book should be used, and consequently we had quite a number of different texts in each subject. A teacher, along with his School Board, could also determine what subjects could be taught, hence there was diversity not only in the texts, but also in the subjects. We glided from a curriculum that was cast-iron in its rigor to one that was so adaptable that trustees had almost, if not altogether, the power to say what books should be used and subjects taught.

The system was short-lived. It had many objectionable features. A change was required and a change was not long in

coming. About '83 or '84, a new order of things was brought about. Only one text-book in each subject could be used and the curriculum was such that the subjects could be taught with some degree of thoroughness. Emphasis was laid on such important subjects as reading, writing, spelling, literature, arithmetic, grammar and composition. For a few years everything went well. To those who had been teaching in the seventies it was hailed with delight. They were freed from the two extremes through which they had passed and had got a more moderate and withal a more workable course and they looked for much fruit as a result. After a trial of four or five years this course was considered by some not engaged in teaching to be too narrow, and the ear of the Minister of Education, which has ever been open to such, if they make a plea for the introduction of a new branch of study, gave a sympathetic hearing and new subjects of doubtful relative value were introduced and the list has had its ebbings and flowings up to the present day.

That many changes have been too radical to serve our best interests let the introduction of vertical writing be taken as an illustration. For a short time after its introduction practically everyone was favorable to it. Woe to the ill-starred fossilist who, at any gathering of teachers or inspectors, had the hardihood to utter a word in opposition. It invaded our country as an army with banners and he who would not enter the procession was out of step, a back number, not in harmony with the progressive spirit of the age. We received it with unbounded enthusiasm. It did its work—or rather the effects of its work are still going on, and where are its advocates to-day? When we get over its baneful results it shall pass into that state of oblivion from which it should never have been resurrected.

Our examinations have kept pace with the meteor-like changes of the curriculum. At one time, there was an examination wave that was simply irresistible. At another time our educational officials seemed almost persuaded to do away with them altogether; and in so far as certain subjects were concerned they were now on for examination and then off.

As an illustration of the inconsistencies practised let entrance literature be taken as an example. For some time there was no examination in literature for entrance, and then for a period there was an examination on a somewhat limited number of prescribed lessons, but for the past few years this subject, under

the name of written reading, is not only upon the entrance list, but, strange to say, it is based solely upon sight work. Notwithstanding the fact that entrance candidates are young and immature, and in spite of the admitted truth that the older the student and the more mature his understanding the better able is he to cope with sight literature, yet entrance candidates are the only ones in our entire system of examinations who are tested exclusively on sight literature—a thing without a parallel in this province.

A glance at our secondary schools will show that they, too, have suffered from an over-crowded curriculum, from frequent and radical changes, from the low standard required for years of matriculants, from the striking off the examination list for teachers of such important subjects as reading, grammar, and arithmetic, from the too great centralization of power by the Education Department, and from the artificial kind of inspection of recent years; but we leave these and kindred topics to be dealt with by our brethren of the High Schools.

The changes we have seen have been far too many and too radical to be in the public interest and students and teachers have not had opportunity to spend their time to the best advantage, but in spite of our aggressiveness and retrogressiveness substantial progress has been made and, in my opinion, the schools of to-day, are in a much more satisfactory condition than at any previous time. This is mainly owing to the earnest and efficient body of teachers and inspectors with which our province is and has for so long been favored. Much, however, remains to be done ere we reach the ideal ever glittering before us, and in order that we may rise to higher things the anomalies of the past may serve as beacons to show us what to cling to and what to avoid. Let us profit by our past experience. Let us not be led away by a thing because it is new and popular. Let us bear in mind that, notwithstanding the plea that is being put forth for Manual Training, Domestic Science, and Commercial Education, the public school course is short and the student of tender years, and if the curriculum be so over-crowded as to be a handicap to the satisfactory teaching of the essential branches we shall not be laying the foundation of an educational system that shall stand the ravages of time.

This Association has ever been influential and progressive, and the work it has accomplished in suggesting legislation and in

criticising acts already passed, must have been of immense value, but it seems to me its power for good might have been greater had we been more consistent. Not infrequently have we asked the Minister of Education to do something for us one year and the following year asked him to reverse it; but it augurs well for our increasing influence that we are becoming more loyal to our findings than formerly.

The school of experience may yet have much to teach us. We may still wander far from the sure and stable path, but we have every faith in the future. The beacons of the past shall guide us. Errors and inconsistencies only will be exploded and step by step we shall reach the solid ground, and in this land of wonderful possibilities, in many different avenues, we believe after the subordinate has been sifted from the essential our educational system shall be the most enduring of our many glories.

In order that we may escape some of the mistakes of the past it appears to me it would be well to consider the following:—

(a) Changes along educational lines should be thoroughly considered before being adopted.

(b) Changes should not be too radical.

(c) No change should be finally adopted until those actively engaged in teaching and the public generally have had ample opportunity to pass judgment upon it.

(d) Teachers should be consulted in the preparation of all school texts.

(e) The preparation of a school text should be open to every person, the best available being not too clever for such important work.

(f) All examination papers should be prepared by a Committee thoroughly acquainted with the work to be covered, the capabilities of the average student in that course, and the questions should be fair and within the limits.

(g) The introduction of subjects that will interfere with the teaching of the branches essential to the foundation of an English education will be detrimental to our highest educational interests.

(h) Feathers, frills and fads should find no place in our system.

THE SALARY OUTLOOK—RURAL AND URBAN.

BY CHAS. G. FRASER, TORONTO.

In the mapping out of our programme it was thought that if we could spend a little time in the consideration of the salary outlook and what we could do to improve this outlook we might have a most profitable hour. I have, therefore, the pleasure of placing before you some of the characteristic figures, and you will, no doubt, agree with me that the outlook is encouraging indeed.

When I began this work of compiling, some years ago, I did not think of going into the subject so extensively, but as the work progressed, new problems arose, and more work was suggested. My present figures begin at 1905 and reach to the end of 1910. I have only the figures showing the salary paid in each school section of each township in the province of Ontario for '05, '06, '07, '08, '09 and '10, but I hope to go back to 1901, to complete the report for the decade. If time would permit I want to go back to the previous decade. Then we shall have before us some figures from which we can make deductions that may be helpful in our future efforts to improve conditions.

In looking over the salaries paid in the rural school sections of our province for the year 1905, we see there was meagre remuneration indeed. Township after township shows the whole list receiving less than \$400—and many of the teachers receiving less than \$300 — and some less than \$200. The standard, the salary to be aimed at, but not always attained, seems to have been the large sum of \$350. The section that paid that sum was in the ranks of those who had done well by their teachers. This was the salary the teacher was to “look up” to. He was to remember that if he did his work satisfactorily and “pleased” the trustees he or she might get this reward. Then we see a change—a general improvement—the salaries rise to \$400—then to \$450, and now we see each column decorated with 500's and 600's, and one rural section has the very pleasing decoration of \$1200—a species of Star and Garter, as you might say.

In seeking to account for this general and persistent increase in these rural salaries, we can remember the general improvement in financial affairs and the great and unsatisfied demand

for teachers in the West, with salaries that appear greater than those paid in Ontario; but we cannot forget the efforts the Government has made, through the Department of Education, to improve the conditions and place the salaries of teachers on a better footing.

In 1906 the Government arranged by Act of Parliament, that in all townships where the average assessment of the school sections was \$30,000, or over, the salary paid to the teachers was to be not less than \$300, and where the average assessment was considerably larger the salary was to be proportionally increased up to \$500. The penalty for non-observance of this regulation on the part of the Board of Trustees was to be the loss of the Government grant, and the teacher who agreed with the Board of Trustees to accept less than the law demanded was to be punished by having his or her certificate cancelled.

This was certainly heroic treatment, but the conditions were deplorable. Many Boards of Trustees recognized that the purpose was right, and the salaries asked for were reasonable; but in many of the richer sections a storm of protest was raised. The system of self-government, which had existed since the beginning of Dr. Ryerson's time, was being superseded and the sacred rights of the sections were being encroached upon. So the Government was assailed on every hand. Almost every newspaper contained some communication regarding this "act of tyranny," and, with one exception, the teachers of the province refrained from entering the lists in defence of the Government. Of course there was but one thing for it in a country like this, with democratic government. The act was repealed.

Then the Department decided upon another plan. As the sections could not be coerced into doing the right, the modern plan called "Moral Suasion," was resorted to. The Government grant was increased and the distribution thereof was based upon:—(1) the average attendance; (2) the equipment of the school; (3) the certificate of the teacher; (4) the length of time the teacher had been retained and (5) the salary paid. The Department engaged to pay 40 per cent. of all salaries paid over \$300 up to \$600. To show how this worked out we might mention that in 1904 the Government grant was \$120,000. This has gradually been increased, till in 1910 the grant has reached the very respectable sum of \$420,000, and a considerable portion of this went to the increasing of the teachers' salaries. Samples

In towns and cities the increase is also marked, rising to the Toronto salaries, where principals receive \$2200, assistant masters \$1500 and lady-assistants \$1000. We are glad to see Toronto heading in this work and Ottawa close behind, and will be delighted to know of each advance throughout the Province.

We have been seeing what the Government has been doing to increase the salaries of the teachers. We should also look at some other factors which should contribute to the campaign to increase these salaries further, till we reach a figure which will in some measure be a fair remuneration for the services of men and women of whom we demand such preparation, to whom we entrust such important work, work so sapping of vitality as school teaching.

First of all, each individual teacher owes it to himself to put forth every legitimate effort to have his salary increased year by year, till a respectable figure is reached. To do this he must make himself of value to the community. For this no time service will do. When he makes his bargain, let the importance of remuneration stand up large. He is placing his knowledge, his experience, his skill, his time in the market. Let him put a proper estimate upon it. Then when he has made his bargain let him forget the value of money and think of the possibilities of his service. Day by day let him bind himself to the work in hand, mastering the subjects he has to teach, studying the pupils committed to his care, winning their confidence and their affection, cuddling round their hearts, so that the daily work will be a labor of love—a willing service. The school-room will then ever be the place of joy it now is to the little girl and boy on first entering upon its pleasures and privileges.

Then he must identify himself with every movement which has for its object the betterment of the community, lending his wisdom and energy to the perfecting of its machinery. He must live a life that will be a model for the boys and girls, winning the admiration of the young people and the confidence and esteem of the parents. He must make himself simply invaluable to them and they will not part with him for any sum within their power. He will have it when he earns it, and also insists on getting it.

I do not say, merely "deserve it." I say, insist on getting it. No one thinks of offering more for a commodity than the vendor asks for it. On the contrary, it seems to be human nature to

want to get it for a little less than is asked. The story is told of an old lady, whose fancy was caught by some material, and she asked the price.

"Four cents a yard," said the salesman.

"Fourteen cents! I'll give you thirteen," said she.

"I said four cents," said he.

"Oh," said she, "I'll give you three."

Well do I remember my first bargain. I was then but a lad of sixteen, and in stature only up to the bottom of my ear. I had made written application for the position at \$350, and was asked to make a personal application. I went with Trustee No. 1, to see Trustee No. 2, and after they had discussed many local topics in a language which I did not understand, one of them turned to me abruptly and said:—

"You want to be our teacher."

I admitted the fault, with some confusion, I suppose.

"How much do you want?" asked he.

"I have applied for \$350," said I.

"We thought we would give only \$340," said he.

"Oh, well," said I, "we will not quarrel over a matter of \$10." So the bargain was closed. I had a school and the trustees had done a good stroke of business. In one minute they had saved \$10 for the section. But I tell you it was a good lesson for me, and being Scotch, when I got my hand on it, it was mine. Year by year, I got an increase, till I received the highest salary paid at that time to a rural teacher in the province of Ontario.

What people do not pay well for, they do not, as a rule, value very highly. It was Portia who said, "And as you have been dearly bought, I will love you dearly." See to it that your services are approximately recognized, or at least that your salary is increased from year to year. If you have to remain without an increase, it would be a good thing, for you and your section, to part company. There are hundreds of sections open to you. The change will be as good as a rest. A new broom will sweep clean, the experience of the past will enable you to make a new start and you will have the chance of getting a more appreciative section. Your power for service will in no way be lessened, and your old section will be taught a lesson to be more appreciative of faithful service in the future.

In the second place, each teacher owes it to the teaching profession to see that the general standing of the salaries of the

Province is not lessened by his remuneration. He should feel himself to be an important integral part of his profession and should remember that the strength of a chain is limited by its weak links. What humiliation it would be for me to know that the salary I receive is the lowest paid in the Province, or to know that the salary I receive is less than the average for the Province—that I am considered as one of the lightweights. Should that not spur me on to strong endeavor? The honor of our profession is in our keeping; and if it is—and it is—it is “up to us” to quit ourselves like men.

In the third place, each teacher has a duty to his fellow teacher. He has his honor and his reputation in his keeping. Whenever we can speak a word of appreciation of his work, or whisper a word of encouragement or of advice in his ear, we should do it. In the slippery weather we take arms with our companions and the slightest pressure at the proper moment prevents an ugly fall. There is an analogy. How often, in school, do we scan the page of the poor writer to find a well-formed letter and point it out to him. You know the effect. His eye constantly returns to that “g” till he has passed it in excellence. You are speaking to a trustee. An appreciative word may open his eyes. I have known of many places where such little remarks have had good effect; and in advancing the interests of our brother or sister teacher, we have brought good to ourselves, as much as if we were children of the same family circle.

In the fourth place, if we have the keeping of our fellow teacher, we are doubly responsible for our assistants. They have come to help *us* in the work of *our* school, and if we would have the best work from them it will be by our co-operating with them. Your experience should be a tower of strength to them and to the school. Mere fault-finding will not win their co-operation, but words of appreciation encourage. Days of support will win loyalty and when the day of re-engagement comes round your advice will certainly be asked. Then you have your opportunity. But do not wait till you are asked. Be a little enthusiastic and the increase will come and will be appreciated. You have the honor and good name of your school in your keeping, and its good name, financially, is of importance. I have felt glad and sorry when I have looked at the salaries of the towns and villages and have seen the gradual increase of the principal's salary, and the salaries of the assistants remaining at the same dead level. That

should not be. It will not be when the principals do what they should do. Do not fear. You will not lose by it. The reflex influence will tell not only on the work of the school but also on your own salary.

In the fifth place, the inspector has a great influence. All that has been said applies to him. Of course there are teachers and teachers. But teachers are not merely born, they are made, too; and while we learn to play on a harp by playing on a harp, we learn much faster and reach a greater degree of perfection under the direction of a master. So the same here. The Inspector should know good teaching and should be able to do it; and when I find the influence of an inspector is such that less than a dozen teachers of his whole inspectorate received less than \$500 in 1910, I take off my hat to him and offer him my heartiest congratulations. As the thermometer does not increase the heat, but registers the true condition, so the state of the salaries of an inspectorate is some criterion of the work that is being done.

Now, what more can be said? Let us consult together and then work together. I am looking forward to the day when the salaries in the rural sections will not be \$350, as in 1905, nor \$450, as in 1907, nor \$500 and \$600 as in 1910, but will be \$1,000, as it is for a lady teacher in Toronto to-day. In that day there will be better teachers and better teaching and there will be less grumbling than there was in 1905, or than there is in 1910.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

THE EDUCATION OF THE LITTLE CHILD IN THE
HOME, THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE FIRST
YEAR AT SCHOOL.

BY MISS MARY ADAIR.

Froebel's greatest insight and his greatest contribution to education was the unification of education—the idea that education must be continuous without leaps, or gaps. In 1826, long before he had conceived the Kindergarten, he published the "Education of Man," in which he starts with the child's first smile; the first evidence of his humanity, and in the most practical and scientific way, presents the processes of growth through infancy, childhood, boyhood and into youth. Rousseau had broken the ground, but in a negative way, saying don't do this or that. It was first Pestalozzi and later Froebel, who contributed the positive view, saying do thus and so.

Froebel, a practical man with a scientific turn of mind, and an enthusiastic love for humanity, brought for the first time into right focus the idea of *Nature's processes* as the true theory of education.

The majority of people, even thinking people, think of Froebel only in connection with the Kindergarten. This view is manifestly unjust to Froebel and belittling to the cause of Education as a whole. Even Kindergartners have been short-sighted in this regard, have held themselves aloof as if they had some cult which might be lost if disseminated. This limited view is the very opposite of Froebel's far-reaching process. The Kindergarten came naturally into view in Froebel's mind to fill, most advantageously for the little child, that period when he pushes out from the home, but it is not yet mentally ready for the definite training of the school. Froebel never for one moment saw the Kindergarten

standing by itself, but always as a distinct step in the whole training of the child. In his Keilhan Institute, he planned for the definite training of mothers, nurses, Kindergartners, teachers. (See Snider's "Life of Froebel.")

Froebel did not *invent* the Kindergarten; he developed it. He was the first to see in a practical way—the woman teacher. He did not *invent* her. Mothering in his mind, meant nurturing, and that must be the atmosphere of the child's life until he is gradually weaned by adolescence into independence. So we find the mother, the Kindergartner, and the first and second year teachers, dealing still with the little child, receptive to a great extent, *with* only *instinctive* reactions but growing towards conscious reactions as he grows towards a conscious personality. All these early teachers must use to a great extent the same methods of stimulus and discipline. Appreciating the fact that each child is the architect of time building in his own halls of time, the mother, Kindergartner, teacher cannot "learn" him as the old way expressed it. She cannot live for him, think for him, act for him, talk for him, laugh for him, eat for him, wrestle for him. All this she did, it is true, in his pre-natal life and he still clings for a time. She cannot do the building, but she is more than a hod-carrier.

As time advances education is much easier for the teacher, for example, the High School is play, as compared to the School of Infancy. The child has defined himself to a great extent, the method is definite and the subject matter is definite. Not so for the first teacher, who must ever remain the most important (but who is generally the least trained). Her work is so indirect ("for the little more and how much it is, and the little less and what worlds away"), that only an artist of *Nature's* finest cultivation with the best fruits of civilization in her brain and the most spiritualized essence of the love of humanity in her heart can do the work full justice.

The necessity and value of the indirect in education is not yet understood although it is more than a century since Rousseau advised us to "take the child by the hand into nature, but let Nature do the teaching." As conditions are with us, yet in this day of grace, 1911, the Mother Teacher is still the best. She is actuated by pure love of the work or more properly of the child. She is not paid, even by the father of the children, but all the more repaid (if the work is well done) in the higher sense. She works out her salvation as a teacher by the time she is a grand-

mother and so keeps the good work going on by trying her new insights on the next generation.

The Kindergarten has not rooted itself as yet in the public mind and is not understood educationally, and so while Kindergarten is criticised as fads and frills, the Kindergarten teacher is left too severely alone, glad to slink into a corner and so gets little help from the public, the mother or the primary teacher, which is all wrong in a unified system. But the teacher of the primary grade! Ah! here you have the ear of the public (and the tongue also). God help her, for vain is the help of man. The School Board, knows now where it is at. The members have all gone to school since they were eight years old, at least, they know what was what in their day, and were there ever such perfect specimens of cultured humanity than they. It is all very well for the primary teacher to know her up-to-date theories. She is up against a condition. Children must be promoted and the parents are standing in line to know why Johnny is left down, and, as for the frills and fads, or in other words, natural human activities and interests, the parents will have none of them. "I don't want my Lizzie to have none of that physical torture, if I want her to jump, she can jump at home." "The practical is what the boy needs, only what will fit him for business," they say, "and the girl less. Reading, writing and figurings enough." If the primary teacher tries to do real, intensive work—plant seeds and give them time to grow—she does it at her peril. Then she also has the problem of numbers. The mother has about one at a time, her largest class about ten, the Kindergarten has twenty-five, the Primary teacher fifty, sixty or seventy, as the economic situation calls. It takes a mighty big heart to do mothering work with fifty children, for four and a half or five hours a day. The teacher grows old in a few years, her face hardens, and sometimes her heart, too. But in spite of this negative view, there is really rapid progress toward better conditions. Education is assuming its due proportion in human life. Science has proclaimed a "lengthening period of infancy," and gradually the high water mark is creeping up to the measure of the child. The child is in the midst. Let us, mother, teacher and Kindergarten, work together with a solidarity that must tell, to get the wedge pushed farther in, some good customs started and secured by force of habit while it is still our day.

What is the child's "*own*"? When I compare the school of

to-day with the one to which I crept unwillingly, I am amazed at the change, not only in the infinitely better grading, but in the quality of the work. Every school to-day has a playground, to-morrow they will be supervised with competent instructors, as in the gymnasium. Every school has some Nature study, to-morrow they will have school gardens, for every child a share. To-morrow we will have everywhere laboratories for science, with ample opportunities for experiment, instead of studying from a book a few unrelated facts as I did. Every school has art instructors for both fine arts and practical. Manual training, called a fad yesterday, is safely in the schools to-day. School Boards might well study to their advantage, the famous old story of the man who killed the goose which laid the golden eggs.

Supposing this perfectly unified system of education to be at hand. How far are we ready to do our part, the mother to say of the four and a half year old, "I have done the *best* I can for him, now I send him on to the Kindergarten." The Kindergarten to say of the six and a half, "I have done the best I can for him, now he is *ready* for the school."

Beginning with the mother and the littlest scholar—or perhaps it is the grandmother, as I hinted above—we realize that she stands between the child and his human possibilities to keep him fully, liberate and control his body and his mind and to open the windows of his soul. What a pity if he should be handicapped by adverse pre-natal experiences. The mothers of our day might well take lessons from the Greeks in physical motherhood. Some mothers think that the mere fact of physical motherhood will supply all insights without education and training. But surely a majority are doing the best possible, "So all's right with the world."

There have been many books written for the guidance of mothers. Comenius made the first attempt, from a scientific point of view, regarding the education of the child, Rousseau followed with his "Nouvelle Heloise," and "Senile," then Pestalozzi, with his practical suggestions in "Leonard and Gertrude," "How Gertrude teaches her children," and "The Evening Hours of a Hermit." Froebel's "Mother Play," coming next in order, has been illuminated by such interpreters as Susan E. Blow, Denton Snider and Elizabeth Harrison. It is hard for even the most carping critic to find a flaw in Froebel's suggestions, they are so eminently in accord with the foremost thought of our time. The picture illus-

trations and the rhymes are faulty, but with the aid of Miss Jessie Wilcox Smith and Miss Emille Poulsson, these will presently satisfy the most fastidious. But the practical suggestions from a play point of view, if mothers only knew and studied them with the Kindergartners and the First Year teachers, would bring about a new educational era. Presently this will be and in the meantime let us briefly browse here and there and see and talk over the suggestions given for the continuous development of the child, that evolutionary progress, mentally, spiritually and physically, which I pointed out yesterday. The book, we must remember, was written for mothers, and deals very specifically with the beginnings of development. The principles are universal and belong to all periods of life. The practical examples are unquestionably in the life of the little child, and where the Kindergarten uses the Mother Plays in specific detail in the Kindergarten, there is danger in the way of a backward step. But keeping ever in mind that childhood does not pass away, but passes on, there is the past to build upon.

It is a good thing for the Kindergarten and Primary teacher, when studying this outline of the first period of life, to view it as the first round in a special process, Kindergarten as the next round, and first school year as the next. Everyone here is familiar with the book from a to z, so I will use the technical terms expressing the manifestations quite freely. To get this circular process you will easily see that "The Play with the Limbs," and "The Little Artist," are both expressing the child's power of self-expression at different ages—at six months, he kicks out, at six years, he represents. Each of these plays has its parallel in a higher stage later on in the book and it is best studied as a whole.

In the few moments at our disposal we may not take time for so exhaustive a study, but let us take a few examples and follow the pathway upward and get a glimpse of the training Froebel had in mind in his "Education of Man." the Mother Play being an elaboration of only the first chapter, viz.: "Infancy." The child, with all possibilities coiled up within him, must have an outlet. The mother acts as environment at first, as *stimulus*, as everything, which surrounds the child. He kicks, he cries, he laughs, he imitates, he takes initiative—a complete round—and at every step where it is best for the child the mother gradually withdraws the active stimulus from without and encourages the stim-

ulus from within. Apply this same principle and practice to the Kindergarten period. A new world with a new form of stimulus and opposition—society, is beginning its action upon him. We must take heed to have just the right degree of *uniformity*, lest he merge his dawning personality. Some one has said that probably *one*, in every five hundred persons stamps his generation with the impress of a real personality. The Kindergarten is careful about her treatment of this emerging personality. She doesn't say: "Wouldn't you like to" and "Don't you want to help," too frequently, if ever, lest she foster caprice. She finds the child, who was only able to kick at six months is ready to learn, controlled physical movements in the Kindergarten, to walk well, slow or fast, balance and poise, to skip, hop, dance, all definite movements. She regards the stimulus of *production* as of great moment. The emotional awakening of the little child, the infant, has now differentiated itself into sensibility which is not wholly merged in the senses, in short, every form of stimulus and opposition which is true to his time of life, must be carefully used. But after two years of this training he must go on into the first year. In the Kindergarten he was stimulated largely through *feeling*—distinct social stimulus, but now authority, for which he should have been prepared, becomes a stimulus, new adjustments are to be made. He is entering upon and into an intellectual world. The child knows this intuitively for the very first day at school he hastens to show his beloved Kindergarten teacher his book and pencil and school sachel, his tools of action. The stimulus of emulation is valuable at this stage, also, but on very slight degree, and wisely, the stimulus of ridicule. There is no incorrigible child in the Kindergarten. He begins in the first grade, if at all. Things and people appeal to him differently. His view of the world is enlarging.

Discussing the second suggestion of Froebel, we get the problem of *experience*, the value of experiment in education and training. Everything vital must be gotten at first hand by experience. Knowing this learning by doing, the mother *lets go* of her child in a hundred different ways that by finding himself he may gain poise and stability, knowledge, *self-faith*. If she holds him too closely and too long in her arms (physically, intellectually or morally), he will never be able to go alone. Each time she lets go he gets a bit of a shock, just enough to make him gather himself together, find out his resources and act upon them. The Kindergarten acts

upon this principle—plenty of experiment. Now the child is plunged into a new movement, he fails, does better next time, tries leadership, etc., etc.

So great is the plunge and the shock of the step into the first grade that it takes a wise hand to bring the child up from the slough of discouragement which succeeds the novelty of the beginning. There is too little concrete experimenting in this grade, but there is a movement toward it. Sand, clay, paper and scissors, blocks, weaving, etc., etc., are all discontinued just at the time they would be of most value. The object held in the teacher's hand is still the custom. The story ought to have even more weight as an opportunity for self-estrangement. The child is ushered into the story of the actual, the plant, the word, number, etc., and never gets a chance for a plunge into another world at all.

The value of the actual and the child's explanation of it is treated by Froebel in the third Mother Play. In "The Weather-vane," the child is noticing his environment. There are two points of view if we touch hurriedly upon the meaning of the play. (1) The child is beginning to inquire into and relate cause and effect, (2) he plays it or *motorizes* it or personifies. We have here the beginnings of science and poetry, quite undifferentiated with the little baby. The Kindergarten still continues the play, the motorizing, for the child is still more interested in activities than in appearances. But through the counter interest of making collections of all kinds and classifying them a little, appearances begin to have an interest. In the poetical, analogical explanations of nature the Kindergarten child is like the child in the home, still in the stage of the natural myth, while all imitations are more or less mimetic and easily taken on because of the accompaniment of activity. Still there is and must be an effort in the Kindergarten to help the child to more conscious imitation. He copies a weaving mat, a border, etc., imitates sounds of creatures and definite movements. In the first year we must make a good use of this faculty. He must imitate very consciously too, in the matter of phonic sounds, number forms, letters and words, drawing, etc.

In seeking for cause there is less exploration in the grade than there should be and less than in the Kindergarten when there might be more. There is less explanation of *cause* by production than in the Kindergarten but number, if rightly taught, be-

comes an explanation. The Primary grades understand the child stage well, the stage of the primitive, and use many fine myths. If only these early teachers would get together and consult with each other as to methods and subject matter it would be a help to all.

This view of imitation as an aid to observation, should be studied in connection with Froebel's suggestions upon "Sense plays." The big question of true and right methods and habits of observation must be studied in infancy, not that it is of importance, that a child shall discriminate 40 colors or shades at two years of age as did the child of Prof. Elmer Gates, far from it, but to have a faculty for sensing the world and seizing at will the essence and totality of objects. Such a gift cannot be over-estimated, and is the right of every child. When baby takes notice is the time to begin. Nature has started him by a mimetic equipment. Take the hint again from that first Mother Play where mother and baby are looking into the doorway of the whirring, noisy mill. He uses ear and eye, but ah! muscle too. He leaps and crows. This is the great method of nature and so hard to remember—motor and sensory complete each other. Pestalozzi saw clearly the importance of good sensory impressions. Froebel saw farther the value of the motor to the sensory. The natural child receives an impression to immediately *act* upon it. The Kindergarten stage is still one of close and immediate relationships between the sensory and motor. But the Kindergarten does strive for more accuracy in sensing by carefully graded sense plays, always remembering that it is not an observation until it is registered by some form of expression. In the primary grade observation must be more exact. In regard to the power of memory recall, I know of no more valuable lesson than that of Froebel in "The Pigeon House."

But there are other things than interests in the child's education. There is that bugbear to the inexperienced grade teacher—*discipline*. To deal skilfully with the *negative* in life and help the child to turn loss into experience, to turn the negative into positive is Froebel's suggestion familiar in the "All Gone"—the conquest of circumstance. "It always remains that if we had been stronger, circumstances would have been less strong against us." Life and literature are both strong on the point of the "recoil of the deed." The indirect method is used to a great extent in the Kindergarten, but it must become direct in time and it is

here the primary teacher finds the child unprepared for definite *attention* and concentration. The Kindergarten relies too much upon "the expulsive power of the new affection," new interests. The grade teacher at once demands an intelligent attention without the allurements of interest and the child between the two is victimized. Here again they should *get together*. It is interesting to note advances in method. . . .

Speaking of discipline and the idea of *order*, it is cruel that so fine an idea as order should become associated in children's minds with discipline and too little in its finer and higher sense. Arranging and grouping and classifying which is made so much of in the Kindergarten is dropped out almost entirely until much later. The cabinet ceases to be and therefore when time comes to go to the museum for observation interest is not ready.

There is a fine chance for close correlation in observance and interest in the meaning of festivals and celebrations of school, society, state and church. These are observed in home not consciously, stories give slight explanation in the Kindergarten, also decorations made in class gifts and other illustrative productions. In the grade some slight knowledge should attend the event by way of explanation of his own and other civilizations, the beginning of History. Evolution in history must be conceived by some such concrete beginning.

It seems a pity that weaving, paper folding, bead stringing, such sequential occupations should cease after the Kindergarten. Such concrete evolutionary processes are fine training toward logic. If the Kindergarten overdoes it, it is quite underdone in the first grade—quite rare.

An interesting connection between home, school and Kindergarten ought to exist in the care of living things, pets. Little baby has only toy dog, woolly lamb, etc. Kindergarten child still brings his teddy bear, but is taking more interest in real life, but home and school have their chance for co-operation in this respect in the first grade with John's bunnies, Harry's guineas, Willie's pigeons, etc. Again, think of the number, language, drawing, composition, modelling correlated in such a delightful and personal way.

Other forms of nature, too, should be made vital by first hand acquaintance. Love for nature is a good beginning for science. The child in the home sees and wonders, the Kindergarten child tries other things and begins to experiment, the first grade child

has experiment and explanation in simple ways—why doesn't the bird drop to the ground? Why does the fish live in the water? The child in the home watches the snow, makes balls, snow man. In the Kindergarten he sees it melt and freeze, catches a snowflake and sees it through a glass. The primary child has some crystallization in simple experiments. In the home the child gathers flowers, revels in the posy field, in the Kindergarten he sows seeds, watches growth, classifies according to season colors, etc., draws, gather seeds and realizes a little of the meaning of nature's care of seeds. The grade has simple definite lessons on gardening, germination.

Home, Kindergarten and grade should consult each other about correlation and preparation of one stage for another in language and number. Home child imitates language; Kindergarten child uses larger and rapidly growing vocabulary, tells stories, has word games, makes parodies and gains fluency of speech, but with the exception of the picture and gesture, language means sound, not sight to him. This changes in the grade and he reads by eye. In number the home child is in the stage of one and many. He uses plurals with a number idea. The Kindergarten child begins to get the group idea of number. He is in the primitive stage like Indian, whose word for man means 20. He has group plays, finger plays, building blocks carrying out this idea. In the grade numbers concepts must be expressed to the eye as well as recognized by the eye. He gets signs to express ideas. He adds and subtracts and gets better grasp of group in number.

A Home and School League is at work in Philadelphia trying to get mothers and teachers to co-operate and make clearer to all that "childhood does not pass away, it passes on."

INTERPRETATION OF THE CHILD AND THE RACE IN LITERATURE.

BY MISS MARY ADAIR.

It is said and now universally understood that the genesis of knowledge in the child and the race follows the same general law of progression, that is to say, that certain attitudes of mind are common to both. In the childhood of the race as in the individual, the same vagueness appears in regard to the institutions and conventional forms of human society. Society is chaotic and unclassified. The life upon Olympus presents a veritable hodgepodge of relationships with no clear distinctions as to the differences between man and the lower animals. In all ancient race stories birds talk and beasts think and interest themselves in human affairs. So near are both child and race child to nature and so like all the simple physical acts of life that they seem to be on identical planes of experience. The child has little perspective either of space or time, with both, to have lived one still lives and reappears in spirit at will—so ghosts in literature.

While this similarity accounts for many of the *motives* in literature it does not account for the fact of literature, the story. Literature has a place of its own and its own evolution from very simple to very complex forms. Literature in common with other forms of art is a projection of man's inner life objectively, a mirror. In it he sees the *mainsprings* of human action.

The story is a more fundamental necessity at the beginning of life than at any later time. It does for man what life itself cannot do. It presents *the whole*. In real life events as they pass in succession are disproportionate, cause is not seen in the light of its effects, nor effects in the light of cause. The story reveals life, and explains man or child to himself. This is its one great excuse for being.

Kindergartners are so accustomed to the child's views that it is easy for them to feel the significance of that vivid creative imagination of the race in its great wonder stories. To see with the soul is the great human prerogative. Seeing the invisible is the whole atmosphere of childhood.

There are no new stories, the same old motives appear. The modern chanticleer recalls the earlier story, but long before Chaucer, ages ago, there was a worship of the bird of dawn. It is still on the churches as a weathervane and comes down with a peculiar significance in the story of Peter. I fancied that I read a new story in *Hiawatha*, but no, the *Kalevala*, the Finnish epic, is the same. Longfellow's "Bell of Atri," tells in a less beautiful fashion than its ancient prototype, "The Serpent and the Toad," the story of justice.

A very few sources cover all the story motives. The Bible, The Vedas, Homer, Boewulf, The Niebelungenlied, Charlemagne, The King Arthur Legend, The Gesta Romanorum, Chaucer, are the great sources. I read Prince Otto recently, and knowing how Stephenson revelled in and saturated himself with the old tales, I was not surprised to find the old story of the self—who am I, the self and its responsibilities, the soul.

Having once discovered the fact of a self, personality, there is a feeling that someone else must want it. They will lure it away and it may be lost entirely. We find this motive in Tannhauser, Tammas of Acildown, The Lorelei, The Erl King, and many others.

If the personality is so valuable why not sell it. The evil one will buy it. This is the motive of the Faust story, Rumpelstitzkin Lumber Leg, Tom Tit Tot.

Conflict between human spirit and other influences is one of the great motives. Perhaps the most profound of these is that conflict of the human spirit with God, Fate, Destiny, the "recoil of the deed," being the modern answer to this query. Individual personality lasts on and your deed is *you*. The Tempest, Cain and Abel, Jonah, Wandering Jew, Ancient Mariner, etc., illustrate this point.

Another motive is the struggle between the lower and higher natures, as we find in Beauty and the Beast, Saul, Idylls of the King, Jekyll and Hyde, Passing of the Third Floor Back.

The struggle between man and his own limitations is the motive of most of the wishing stories, Fairy Tales, Old Pypes and the Dryad, Hero tales, Daird Stories.

(Miss Adair also gave a classification of myths and of sequence stories, illustrating in her own inimitable way as she had all through her lecture.)

PROGRAMME MAKING.

BY MISS MARY ADAIR.

It may hinder the view of the woods as a whole to see the trees too individually. In this programme we shall not stop over the detail of Monday, Tuesday, etc., but endeavor to get some slight additional grasp of the whole scope of this period of development. No work could be more futile than to carry out day by day some outline of exercises which one has not lived into through actual experience. It is the blind leading the blind. A good memory, fluency and aptitude to teach, may get good results in the eighth grade, but more is demanded for the Kindergarten stage. The first requisite in all teaching is suggested by a story told of students entering a great University (Edinburgh, it is said). The three requirements to be met were (1) piety; (2) knowledge; (3) common sense. If the student had not the first, he must ask God for it; if he had not the second, he must seek it from the University, but if he had not the third, neither God nor the University could give it.

The Kindergarten has suffered perhaps more than the other grades from lack of common sense. Common sense is that power which comes through knowledge of *the whole*—intuitive judgment—seeing the end from the beginning. We must ask ourselves does the programme grow? Does it develop? Is it vitalized by one's own, and above all, by the children's experiences? These are the test of a real programme.

The evolution of a programme is the evolution of a child through experience to larger experience and thus to power. If a programme is not a growing, developing, evolving process, it is dead. I have no quarrel with the traditional programme. Miss Blow's, for example, but one who uses it ought to know whether it is Miss Blow in 1885 or in 1911. I thought for a long time that the programme I used, which had been given to me, was the outline of work used by Froebel himself, and that to vary it in ever so slight degree would be treasonable. Nothing could be more dead-

ening than a crystallized outline. Like many other crystallized things it is better "on the shelf." The Kindergarten or teacher of any grade should study evolution until it becomes a passion as it was in Froebel's mind, for only in this way can one measure experience by growth.

Evolution expresses growth which realizes itself in ever increasing complexity with specialization of power always in the interest of the highest good to the individual, and the species—unity manifesting itself through diversity. There must be the embryo, the unfolding process and the realized product, which represents a perpetual march onward, for the realized product of one stage is but the embryo of a higher order of march. There are low and high forms of evolution, then, to be studied. Some one has said that if God wants to make a squash, He can do it in six months, if an oak, six hundred years. Millions of squashes "have their day and cease to be," while one oak is realizing itself. What then of the product we are working upon, a human soul? We have to do with physical being, so we study Biology, which represents the movement upward from an undifferentiated all through all processes of growth, adaptation and selection, to the completion of that phase in the human form divine, which we must believe is only the embryo of a still higher being, the chrysalis of an archangel. We study History and pre-historic development to find the evolution of civilization from the lowest form of merely gregarious units to the highest co-operative community, where the good of *the whole* is the watchword, where institutions are realized as opportunity for more and more perfect service. We find in History the study of *ideals* as they emerge in the race. In fact the whole method of teaching from the Kindergarten up is being altered gradually as teachers get the true evolutionary view. It has been ever so that the dominating thought in human life must be reflected in all its forms; for instance, the fundamental principles of the Ptolemaic, Copernican and Nebular theories of the universe were reflected in the different forms of government of their day.

To get even the least hint of evolution, means that one is beginning to see *the whole*—the seed, the process, and the goal *as one movement*. Nothing can be realized in growth which was not potential in the seed. The great nation lies potentially in the village community.

The vision of *the whole* is the first essential in programme

making. Some day a good programme will evolve. It is not here yet. What is the seed thought, the embryo, from which a Kindergarten programme is to develop? A human child—experience—environment. I suggest environment here in the large sense used by Professor Horn, when he says: "Education is the superior adjustment of a physically and mentally developed conscious human being to his natural, intellectual, volitional and institutional environment." The Scylla and Charybdis of the Kindergarten programme is on the one hand a *too fixed* programme in the hands of incompetent, inexperienced teachers, cut and dried, with no vitality, on the other hand the attempt to "*follow the child*," (without the aid of such perspective as I have suggested) until one is lost in the moment and in the individual, missing altogether the *vision of the whole* which is the only real illumination for the teacher. I remember a phrase that was Greek to me in my early Kindergarten days, "The ball is the external counterpart of the child." I had an idea that in some mystical way this was true of the ball, but did not see that it applied in the same way to other things. I can see myself at the same date a raw recruit, but eager to do something. I am standing helplessly before a class of baby minds, trying to stimulate them towards an intellectual heaven through the member gateway of the cube. Each has a cube in hand, and I say (playfully): "Now let us all count the faces, and so on with corners and edges. The babies are willing to go to the bottomless pit of ignorance notwithstanding my efforts of entreaty and example. That lesson was in the programme for the day, but the programme was not "the external counterpart of the child." "You can take a horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink," but you can make him thirsty, and if you do, you have at least one condition. Have him hungry and thirsty, have ready food and drink in an *assimilative* form and the child will do the rest. But the *assimilative* form, there's the rub. The teacher may stimulate curiosity by the right use and presentation of *material*. She may direct activities through imitation towards initiation. She may discipline through wise opposition, but the child must do his own growing and if a normal child is not growing normally in every way it is safe to say that he is not assimilating his food, physical, intellectual or spiritual. The principles and practice of growth must corroborate each other, so we find that Educational principles are simply educational practice in terms of universal application.

The first educational principle asserts that *development is possible* and all sincere educational work rests upon this foundation. The second is that all development is consequent upon the *self-activity* of the individual. The third that the *self-activity* of the individual results in *growth*, granting healthy organs for assimilation and an assimilative condition of environment.

We are to-day upon the threshold of a truer science of education than ever before and if we can really enter into it, a tremendous awakening is at hand. "There is a tide in the affairs of men, which taken at the flood leads on to fortune, etc." For the sake of everything we hold dear, let us rise upon it now to greater purpose and security.

The science of education involves three considerations, (1) the being to be educated; (2) the subject matter of education; (3) the method by which (1) and (2) come together and make one cultured personality. We know we are only upon the threshold of the truer science of education, for looking back a short distance into the History of Education, we find people most consciously trying to fit the child to the subject matter. There is danger to-day of being impaled upon the other horn of the dilemma. We are trying to fit the child to the *method*. Both of these are forms of educational astigmatism, the second being the more dangerous of the two. Presently we shall have true sight, *insight*, and fit both the method and the subject matter to the child.

If we are going to fit the method and the subject matter to the child we must take his *measure*. You remember that in the story of the three bears there is the little bowl for the little bear, a larger for the middle-sized bear, and a great huge bowl for the great huge bear. Capacity is the measure. To understand the capacity at each stage of growth is the test of the teacher.

I remember a significant statement made by the late Dr. Harris (see editor's preface to *Mottoes and commentaries* by Blow, pages xi. to xv). To elaborate this still further, let us ask of our experience the following questions in regard to the normal child of 4½ years. What degree of *attention* is possible? Has he any memory resource apart from his own personality? Of what degree of rational judgment or reflection is he capable? What explanation of environment has he, natural, human or spiritual? What apperceptive mass is his, and whether in associative form or in perceptive detail? What command of language has he, not measured in words alone, but how clearly does he visualize the

idea for which words stand? What will power, initiative, self-control has he? How much is positive, negative, inhibitive, self-directive? What hand skill and productive energy is his? What development of feeling? To what extent have experience of life and observation reacted upon fancy and imagination? And now, having taken his measure, let us try to fit him by a true method and subject-matter fitted to his capacity.

In regard to the *method*, the Kindergarten method is generally understood to be the *play* method. While this is true, in the general sense, it is not sufficiently definite and is subject to misunderstanding. It is true that play is the dominating activity of the child at this period of life, that he is irresponsible and capricious as yet, lacking concentration in any fixed degree, that he is still adjusting himself to a world which excites wonder and surprise. If this *spontaneous* interest in *everything* is dulled by concentration upon *one* thing, he will lose rather than gain. It is true too that his explanations are symbolic rather than scientific. He is in the *myth making* stage and follows the natural method in his explanation. It is not true that he plays always, does no work, and that Kindergarten play fosters inattention and caprice and arrests the child mind upon the plane of fancy. If this is ever true it is only the exception that proves the rule. It is the failure of a particular example of Kindergarten practice, not the method. The actual forms a large part of the day's work. The children build, organize material into houses, bridges, towers, chimneys, and other forms of environment. They color and draw and weave and have all the simpler forms of regular manual training. Would that we could say they had actual gardening in every school. It would be a very grave error, if true, that children were kept in a world of make-believe, but nothing could be farther from the method. The hope is that the child shall find himself, not lose himself. With these modifications and qualifications, I will still use the term "education" by means of play, for play is still at the Kindergarten age the highest form of self-expression the child possesses.

The method we use implies a programme. In no other way could one so well see the end from the beginning. Those who advocate the "follow the child" principle, are, I think, less scientific and not fair to the child, allowing his caprice to govern. The child looks to the past, has no defined future to approximate,

habit easily controls him. The Kindergartner corrects this to some extent by her forward look.

The rules of method are so well known and understood that I shall touch upon them very briefly. Everyone says glibly in these days "From the concrete to the abstract." What is the concrete?

All specific rules of method in the Kindergarten are related to the above principle, (1) do something; (2) name the activity; (3) see something; (4) reproduce it; (5) originate something. So also rules for guidance in the consideration of facts and materials. "Every isolated fact is a dead fact, grasped in its total process, it is a living and life-giving fact. To seek the tie which binds separate elements in one whole is the characteristic of *thought*"

Productive exercises should represent a five-fold development:

(1) Advancing from the external arrangement of fixed material to technical and artistic processes the child gains, not only manual dexterity and skill, but ideas.

(2) Rising from mere imitation and production by rule to free productive representation he develops originality of expression.

(3) Receiving from productive activity a new incitement to observation, he finds out for himself the salient qualities of physical objects and begins the mastery of the alphabet of things.

(4) Energizing to realize in external things the vision of their ideal, possibilities, his will is strengthened and he becomes a practical power.

(5) Lastly through the exertion of casual energy he forms the habit of looking from *sensible facts* to their productive process in cause and so begins to explain by evolution.

A further elaboration of the concrete as explaining the plays and activities:

(1) The *actual* experiences of the child should furnish the incitement for his play. At the same time it is a mistake to suppose that only the literal and customary should be produced.

(2) "In *work* the mind concentrates itself. In play it surrenders itself to the allurements of its object. Work demands the subordination of personal inclination. Play occupies itself according to its own caprice." These two activities of humanity should find in each individual, a perfect balance.

Regarding the self, the method must be concrete, "starting with

instinctive manifestations and developing toward conscious ideals." What are the dominant impulses? "To reproduce the life that is around him. To revive the life that is behind him. To foster the life that is beneath him. To perfect the life that is within him."

The natural and instinctive interests to be utilized to the full in the child's development are: activity, imitation, rhythm, possession, aesthetic instincts, instincts for order, number, gregariousness, animism, symbolism.

In working out the subject matter of the Kindergarten, let us start with the most fundamental idea, the most inclusive of all ideas, the idea which *dominates* nature, explains human institutions, and reveals God, that highest form of thought which yet appears in the simplest form of life, even in the *atom*—the idea of order. Order is Heaven's first law. What is there so fundamental upon which to construct a developing programme. From nature's instinct to man's highest deed, the impulse is for order. The mottoe for the programme is "Dimly at first, but clearly by and by he'll see how earth, air, sky, plants, beasts and men, are knit in one great *whole*, interdependent while the ages roll." (Froebel).

This view places the Kindergarten at once upon its true moral basis, its whole purpose and foundation being moral in the highest sense of recognition of *law*. Law is the first recognition to safeguard social life. Law is the standard which arises out of co-operative forms in any order, social or natural. Law is the imperative which determines the good of the whole. There are three forms of order belonging to human life, space, time, relationships. These are to become a living part of the life of the child, first by being an atmosphere of the Kindergarten, second, by observation, experience and explanation, suited to the child's stage, of different forms of order and ideal example in story, game and exercise. In a true programme every element of the Kindergarten, either as atmosphere or experience must be viewed in a continuously progressive scale. The child's world moves with him. Always simple and embryonic in the beginning, experiences, songs, exercises, stories, games, pictures, language, etc., grow more complex and interests are more diversified as he advances. There is only one exception to this general progression and this would be in the case of the prayer, hymn, devotional music and other *forms* tending to intensify spiritual life. These must not change so fre-

quently as to dissipate the sense of Permanence, which must be an early conception of God—the “I am.” Seldom, imperceptibly, and with great care should changes be made. The calendar advances distinctly, concretely, and progressively, even its structure may advance with the growth of the children. (Specimens shown). The calendar becomes a record of Time—past, present and future. It connects the child with time, is a record of nature changes, weather, light, season, etc., incites to and rewards observation. The child’s growth toward larger aspects of his social relationships is assisted through the connection of school and home festivals concretely with the calendar. The calendar becomes associated with the essentials of nature life, classification of flowers, according to season, form and number. At least every month there is a calendar review, children reading more and more of history into each review.

In the morning circle, which evolves in the first grade into the language lesson, we assist the reduction of the world into order, inventorying of the facts of environment which become one’s mental possession in the form of language. Language is the medium through which ideas are communicated and in its widest sense includes word, gesture, picture, dramatic expression, experience, literature, song, rhyme, story. Each of these as language belongs to the morning circle and each evolves with the movement of advancing ideas. In the morning circle certainly one central thought must dominate and govern and as before suggested it is foundationally some form of order. After some time the child has advanced from his early adjustment, that of finding order in space to a knowledge of many relationships, he is actively classifying nature, has distinguished family and had vitalizing experiences of other institutions. He has a gain in actual mental content of many ideas recognized in story and knows by heart and to repeat perhaps 10 stories. He advances from an almost physical order toward good beginnings in mental order. But his greatest gain, must be through *experience*. He starts in the first day with little or no conception of himself in a group. He is plunged into a group of equals. Unless care is exercised he will lose the measure of individuality he has already gained or go too strongly in the direction of individualism. . . . To see that every child is making the adjustments necessary for his age and for which the Kindergarten stands requires the finest skill. . . . The child cannot have the first idea of a world of workers and

contributors until he has worked for the whole and contributed to the whole. . . . The programme must be a record of the child's growth through experience to further experience and when one thinks of the subtlety of the work, one asks, "Who is sufficient unto these things." Perhaps it is necessary that "fools rush in," but we are determined each year not to be such an abject fool as last year. One road to wisdom is to see clearly *the whole*.

The programme is a mirror of the child's own life and at the same time anticipates as far as he needs it the life of the species. "Education is that process by which the individual is lifted toward or into the species." Certainly education has lost its significance when it loses sight of *life* and reaches out only for *facts*. In this regard the Kindergarten has a truer philosophy than the school (as usually demonstrated). But there are Kindergartners and Kindergartners, and the best programme in the world is useless without that finest common sense called insight. The best Kindergarten makes the best use of the *incidental*. All facts of nature, growth, change, time, light, etc., are brought into relief at the psychological moment either to answer a question or to stimulate curiosity and discovery.

The gifts are playthings, not objects for object lessons. "The impression is the alien, is felt as inadequate as unsatisfactory, until the child makes it his own by turning it over into terms of his own activity." Both gifts and occupations are intended to assist the child to liberate himself in this way and should not be too inelastic. Froebel's word was "To give unto men themselves" All elements of environment should be considered and fundamental activities assured, but mastery of environment and expression of the self is the aim.

(The chief points in the address were illustrated by charts).

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

IN DEFENCE OF THEORY IN EDUCATION.

H. T. J. COLEMAN.

It is perhaps inevitable that any new candidate for a place in the already very lengthy list of professional studies should be viewed by educationists of conservative temperament with a good deal of suspicion. That such is the case in connection with the study of the theory of education is well known to all of us,—through our reading of educational literature, if not through personal experience with certain men whom the public think and speak of as our colleagues, but who by innuendo, if not by direct assertion, give unmistakable evidence that they regard us very much in the light of poor relations whom it would be a relief to be able to disown.

It is my purpose this morning to deal in some detail with certain of the criticisms offered upon our work as instructors in the theory and practice of teaching, to examine their claims to validity and to inquire if there is not in them some element of truth which we may well take to heart.

I will admit at the outset that some of the objections made to the professional study of education are meant rather as pleasantries than as serious arguments. But there are others which, though they may appear to us to carry little weight, are yet regarded as entirely valid by those who advance them, and it is with these latter objections that I wish to deal in this paper.

Let us consider first the dictum, which still represents the attitude of a great many of the older members of the teaching profession. It is that such work as we are engaged in is on the whole superfluous, since if a man knows a subject he can teach it. I do not wish to be unnecessarily controversial in my remarks this morning, but I am compelled to observe in this connection that these objectors, in making this statement, are guilty of a scan-

dalous inaccuracy in the use of the English language. What they really mean is that if a man thoroughly knows a subject he will be able to tell what he knows about that subject; which is, as I take it, a truism.

There is, however, a very great difference between telling what one knows about a subject and teaching that subject. The difference is the one, long recognized in popular philosophy, between bringing the horse to water (or, rather, bringing water to the horse) and inducing him to drink. Now, if a man does not recognize this distinction, if he does not live and work in the light of the truth which this distinction suggests, he is no teacher, even if the whole alphabet be exhausted to furnish him forth with academic titles. He is a Philistine and has no part nor lot with the chosen people.

Professor John Adams has, in a recent work, expressed in a striking way the fact to which I have just alluded. He remarks that in the sentence "The Master taught John Latin," the verb "taught" has two objects, "Latin," and "John," and that the indirect object is just as important for purposes of analysis as is the direct. This sentence, says Professor Adams, is a type of the school room. The master should of course know his Latin, but he should also know John. It is with John that we, as students of the theory and art of education, are more directly concerned. Our gospel is the gospel of the indirect object.

Our discussion of this phase of the subject might end here, were it not for the further fact that many of the critics who advance the argument "If a man knows a subject he can teach it," seek either by implication or by direct assertion to convey the impression that those who are interested in promoting a scientific theory of education, entertain the preposterous notion that by the legerdemain of teaching method they are able to make a knowledge of the subject matter on the part of the teacher relatively unimportant. An appropriate, though unprofessional answer to such an insinuation would be the remark made by Mr. Flannery, the express agent in "Pigs is Pigs," when exasperated by the inability of the Head Office to appreciate the fact that the number of the guinea-pigs left in Mr. Flannery's charge did not remain stationary for any great length of time. His observation was, if I remember rightly, "Come! Wake up! Don't be a back number!"

Some one hundred and fifty years ago the French theorist,

Jacotot, did make the statement that he could teach Dutch without understanding a word of the language, but no one except its author took the statement very seriously and no one mentions the theory now except to illustrate the fact that there are pseudo-scientists in education as well as elsewhere. I know I am strictly within the bounds of truth when I say that no persons are more conscious of the need of more scholarship on the part of our teachers, no persons are more anxious for the arrival of the day when to be a teacher will mean to be, *ipso facto*, a man or woman of culture than are the instructors in the training-schools of this province.

There is another objection to the professional study of education, somewhat akin to the one we have been discussing, and yet sufficiently different from it to merit separate consideration. It finds an expression in one of a very excellent series of essays on English public school problems written by Mr. A. C. Benson, and published under the title, "The Schoolmaster." Mr. Benson distrusts the professional training of teachers because of its formality and expresses the conviction that he could in a half-hour's conversation, impart to a beginner all those methods and devices which he has found practically helpful in his own work.

From a scientific standpoint Mr. Benson's argument is somewhat incomplete. He does not report that he has actually tried the experiment and found it a success. Neither have we the testimony of any beginner for whom the method of "teaching ability developed while you wait," has done all that this particular advocate claims for it. It is doubtless true that the fundamental principles of education like the fundamental principles of morality can be expressed in a few sentences, but no one is justified in inferring from this fact that the vital apprehension of them can be equally speedy. I am reminded, in this connection, of the remark attributed to a distinguished professor of philosophy, to the effect that all his theory of education could be summed up in two sentences: "Don't give your students too much that is old, and don't give them too much that is new." Such instruction is just as much to the point and just as practically helpful as the counsel of the famous painter to the novice who asked him the secret of his art, "Get the right colors, mix them in the right way, and put them on the right place."

Apart from the very large assumption that what is simple and obvious to the experienced teacher would be simple and obvious

to the beginner, Mr. Benson, and the class of critics he represents, seem to think that there is little worth while in a theory of education beyond a few simple devices for making a lesson go off briskly. An essential part of our common creed as instructors in the art of education, is, as I understand it, that "going off briskly" is not the chief test of the truly successful recitation, that every device must find its justification first in a rational and comprehensive statement of the aims of the educative process of which the individual lesson is a part, and, in the second place, in a theory of mind sufficiently general and yet sufficiently concrete to illuminate every step of that apparently simple and yet really very complex thing which we call the recitation. Now, should I say to the teacher in training, "Always observe in your teaching the golden mean between the familiar and the novel," he has a right to ask and, if he has had any taste of the difficulties and discouragements of school room work, he will ask, "How much of the old is too much?" and, if he does, I will be compelled to respond, "That depends." He will doubtless counter with the query, "Depends on what?" If I seek to enumerate the contingencies which affect the application of my maxim in various typical situations, I will have contracted for much more than a single half hour of exposition and I will have but touched the fringe of the subject since I have still to answer the questions. "What of the old will I employ? and What is the outcome when the new and the old are brought into conjunction with each other?"

Of course, most of us when we discuss the questions I have mentioned employ the rather puzzling term, "Apperception," and perhaps while doing so are somewhat disquieted by the well-known criticism of Professor James and his suggestion that the use of the term represents a more or less deliberate attempt to mystify simple-minded folk. "Apperception," he remarks, "verily means nothing more than taking things into the mind." Now, Professor James was a doctor of medicine as well as a psychologist, and I would suggest that his good-natured sarcasm might have more properly been directed against the profession who prefer to speak of distilled water as *aqua distillata* and who puzzle the lay intellect by characterizing the simple process of taking food into the body by such awe-inspiring terms as mastication, deglutition and assimilation. to say nothing of anabolism and katabolism. In my opinion, the term which Professor James condemns is a most valuable one and I am enough of a Herbar-

tian to feel that no contribution ever made to the theory of education outranks in serviceableness this very theory of apperception.

There is a third form of hostile criticism which is, in a large measure, the outcome of the fact that one of the problems with which the modern study of educational theory concerns itself is that of the relative values of studies. Intimately connected with this problem is the question of formal discipline. While the question is still far from a solution, certain conclusions have been reached which throw serious discredit upon an argument which practically all scholars have used in support of the claims of their respective specialties. There are, as I think we recognize, vested interests in education as there are in business and in politics, and it is perhaps natural for the supporters of the claims of the classics, mathematics and the natural sciences (to mention three only of the groups of studies involved) to show some resentment when the formal value of their specialties is questioned. They employ what is perhaps a fair argument, though certainly not a convincing one, when they attempt to discredit the theory of specific discipline by discrediting its supporters. I find an excellent illustration of this method of argument in an article by Professor Paul Shorey, of the University of Chicago, in the *School Review* for November, 1910.

Professor Shorey advocates a larger recognition of the classics in the curriculum of the American colleges and high schools. His summary of the intrinsic values of these studies is most admirable and convincing, but he argues that these studies possess certain other characteristics which give them unique value for school purposes. These characteristics are definiteness, continuousness and difficulty. All these elements are, in the main, formal in their nature. Of his own position in the matter and of certain psychologists who have questioned the disciplinary value of studies he speaks as follows: "Throughout this discussion I have taken for granted the general belief of educators, statesmen and the man in the street, from Plato and Aristotle to John Stuart Mill, Faraday, Lincoln, President Taft and Anatole France, that there is such a thing as intellectual discipline and that some studies are a better mental gymnastic than others. This, like other notions of "common sense" is subject to all due limitations and qualifications. But it is now denied altogether and the authority of Plato, Mill, Faraday, or Lincoln, is met by the

names of Hinsdale, O'Shea, Bagley, Horne, Thorndike, Bolton and DeGarmo. Tastes in authorities differ. But these gentlemen are cited not as authorities, but as experts, who have proved by scientific experiment and ratiocination that mental discipline is a myth. There is no such proof and no prospect of it."

From a careful reading of Professor Shorey's article, I have come to the conclusion that there are two offences which are, in an intellectual sense, well-nigh unpardonable. One is to contradict Plato and thereby say a very foolish thing and the other is to say a sensible thing in total ignorance of the fact that Plato has said it before you.

But Professor Shorey is not satisfied with a comparison of the authorities pro and con. Educational theory in the persons of some of its exponents have displeased him, therefore away with it from the earth. "To-day there is," he tells us, "no science of psychology, sociology or pedagogy that can pronounce with any authority on either the aims or the methods of education."

This statement rather takes one's breath away, for in the very next paragraph occur the sentences, already quoted, in which the essential validity of the theory of formal discipline is stoutly maintained. Why are Plato and President Taft introduced, except that the matter may be formally and finally settled. Now the theory of formal discipline is a definite pronouncement, both as to method and aim in education? It would seem, then, that while the psychologists and the sociologists are withheld from any positive theories upon a question in which their own sciences are most directly concerned, the professor of languages may, with perfect propriety, step in and settle the matter out of hand.

I can explain Professor Shorey's assumption that all modern educational theory and practice is based on mere unsupported opinion, only on the supposition that he regards the conditions of the university class room as typical of all class rooms everywhere. It may be that in his own experience he has found no occasion to question the traditions of many generations of academic predecessors. It may be that to him in his Olympian aloofness and seclusion the story of the investigations and experiments which have accompanied the public school movement during the last one hundred years and the recital of the reasoned conclusions which have been the outcome of this movement, form a "tale of little meaning." It may be that he has found the time-honored method of reading lectures and giving examinations fairly adequate to

the needs of mature minds, such as University students are supposed to possess. But if he were transferred to the elementary or to the secondary school, if he were given forty or fifty wriggling youngsters to instruct, or a room full of high school juniors just into their teens, if his responsibility were a continuous one and not merely for an hour now and again, I fancy that the problem of method, if not the problem of aim, would become very real and very pressing and that he might find some much needed help in those sciences of which he speaks with such scorn. And there is no scorn, it is to be remembered, quite so superior as the scorn of the classicist.

I feel constrained to make, before concluding this paper, some reference to an interesting discussion which took place at our meeting last year and which will possibly be continued this year in the joint meeting we are to hold with the Inspectors' Department. In the discussion in question some doubts were expressed as to the value to the teacher in training of the study of theory in general and of psychology in particular. Professor Munsterberg of Harvard was cited by one of the speakers as a disbeliever in the value of Psychology to the teacher.

It is not a very easy matter to determine the exact attitude of Professor Munsterberg in this connection. In his essay in "Psychology and Education," which, until the publication of his recent work on "Psychology and the Teacher," was generally regarded as the authoritative statement of his opinions in this matter, he does tend to minimize, if not to deny absolutely, the value of psychology to the practical educator. He says, for example, "The view of man as a free being, as history must see him, is equally true with the view of man as an unfree being as psychology must see him; and the friend's and educator's view of the child as the indissoluble unit and wilful personality is just as valuable and true as the psychologist's view, which sees it as a psychophysical mechanism. You destroy a consistent psychology if you force in it the categories of practical life, but you also destroy the values of our practical life if you force on them the categories of our psychology." Again he remarks, "Certainly the teacher ought to study children and men in general, but with the strictly anti-psychological view; he ought to acknowledge them as indissoluble unities, as centres of free will, the functions of which are not casually but teleologically connected by interests and ideals and not by psychological laws."

In the concluding section of the essay, Professor Munsterberg, makes some positive recommendations. He suggests that while the purely scientific attitude of the psychologist cannot well keep house with the humanitarian attitude of the teacher, there is an opportunity and indeed a demand for a middleman, combining the characteristics of both. "While the teacher's practical attitude must suffer," so he says, "by the influence of the psychological attitude in the same consciousness, the theoretical scholar who is not himself a teacher, can, of course, easily combine the two attitudes and alternate between them. The teacher must live fully in the one attitude, and every opposite impulse inhibits him; the student of education remains in a theoretical relation to both of them and can therefore easily link them." "The bread which the teacher bakes for his classes comes indeed partly from the wheat or psychological fields, but the corn must be ground beforehand in the educational mills."

There is, I think, some truth in what Professor Munsterberg says, and I know we all agree with him as to the unwisdom of the individual teacher making his or her own theory of education without competent aid or direction. But there are certain of his positions which I, for one, cannot accept. The first is that the teacher, in virtue of his calling, is compelled to regard the child as a perfectly free and undetermined creature. Such a thing as educational method would, it seems to me, be impossible on such grounds. Method presupposes the development of experience according to certain laws and the control of the child's experience by the teacher through the recognition of these laws. A doctrine of pure caprice of will, if consistently followed, makes, as Herbart very truly remarks, the practice of education impossible.

My second objection would be to the contention that the teacher should leave Psychology alone and should be content to accept unquestioningly the rules of his art from the expert. If the middleman can pass so readily from the attitude of the scientist to the attitude of the practical educator, is there any inherent difficulty in the teacher doing the same thing. May not the teacher when outside the class room regard his work with rigid scientific scrutiny and will he be any the less efficient and humanitarian if he understands in part, if not wholly, the scientific basis of the rules he is called upon to apply. If we ask him to be cautious about giving negative commands and call attention to the classic case of the mother who told the children not to put peas in the

baby's ears, will he apply our instructions with any less effect if he knows something about the psychological law of suggestion. If we instruct him as to the most economical and effective methods of memorizing, is our instruction vitiated by a reference to the various experimental studies of the memory function made within recent years.

Of course, Professor Munsterberg's chief bugbear is the teacher who constructs a whole system of school room practice on the slender basis of a summer term in Experimental Psychology. Such a creature would be terrifying enough, I have no doubt, and would, if there were many such, fully justify our going even further than Professor Munsterberg would recommend; it might even warrant us in excising the word psychology from our courses of study for teachers and placing all text-books on the subject upon the educational Index Expurgatorius. My own observations would lead me to conclude, however, that very few teachers show any great disposition to construct an educational theory of their own, whether the material at hand be slender or ample. The greatest fault of very many of them, in my humble opinion, is that they do not realize that a correct and an adequate theory is the most practical thing in life and that to accept and apply with unintelligent faith the instructions of even the greatest of authorities is to live a slave all one's days.

But we have a later statement of Professor Munsterberg's views, a statement, which, he says, is not in any way at variance with his earlier pronouncement. In the introduction to his work on "Psychology and the Teacher," (published in 1909), he recommends most cordially the study of Psychology by the ordinary teacher, and gives as his reason for this apparent change in attitude the many significant contributions which Psychology has made to Educational Science within the last ten years.

The practical considerations of the limits of your patience and of the time at my disposal forbid my entering into a discussion of the question whether Professor Munsterberg has or has not undergone (unconsciously, of course,) a pedagogical conversion. The important thing is that he has made for us a valuable summary of the contributions of modern psychology to educational theory. Nevertheless, I cannot refrain from observing that if the attitude of the teacher is inherently and intrinsically anti-psychological (as Professor Munsterberg has assured us it is) I cannot see how it

can be fundamentally altered by the mere fact of an increase in psychological knowledge.

There is a certain practical aspect of our work to which I wish to refer by way of final remark. Every year students come to us (sometimes in considerable distress), and say "Mr. A. criticized me adversely for doing thus and so, and when under the same conditions I attempted the contrary in teaching for Mr. B., I incurred his severe displeasure. What am I to do?" Now the question is not primarily "What shall the student do?" but "what shall Mr. A. and Mr. B. and all the rest of us do?" We can at least attempt to understand the grounds of any possible agreement or disagreement on our part. We can emphasize in our dealings with our students a fact which they often overlook, the fact that conditions which seem to them to be the same are not always really so. We can realize (and this, to my mind, is the most important thing of all,) that we are not only instructors in the art of education but its exemplars as well. We talk, for example, about the correlation of studies and we, not infrequently, go each his own way, the model school master his, the normal school master his and the University instructor in education with his head touching the stars and his feet resting, at times, on nothing more substantial than a rosy cloud bank.

There is nothing more really practical in education than an adequate theory, but adequacy means more than logical consistency and completeness. It means definiteness and concreteness, a definiteness and a concreteness so luminous that the wayfarer who passes in and out of our class rooms from year to year, and to whom the 20th century looks not only for much of its practical guidance but also for many of its ideals as to human life and human destiny—that this wayfarer, whom we call the teacher-in-training, shall not err therein.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

INSPECTION AS AN AID TO EDUCATIONAL EFFICIENCY.

BY C. B. EDWARDS, INSPECTOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
LONDON, ONT.

The value of an individual's services to Society is not always justly appraised by current Public opinion. In recent years, however, there is an increasing tendency to submit all matters of public interest and public concern to Scientific investigation and careful consideration. The privileges hitherto claimed and accorded to Caste and Custom are being everywhere challenged and curtailed.

Is it not true that the public estimate of one's value to the community should be based on the worth of the social service that one performs?

In any discussion of the question as to the use and value of School Inspection there are several aspects that require examination, explanation and consideration.

The expenditure of public money, whether provincial or municipal, for school inspection can only be justified by the fact that the employment of School Inspectors is an absolute necessity to secure the best results from our system of Public Schools.

It is the object of the writer of this paper to briefly discuss some of the different functions of an Inspector of Public Schools with a view of pointing out wherein that official can be an aid to Educational Efficiency. In doing this, four phases of his work will be touched upon, viz.: (a) his duties as an officer of the Department of Education; (b) his relation to the local authorities; (c) his position as a leader in education in the community, and (d) how best he can co-operate with and stimulate the teaching staff.

THE INSPECTOR AS AN OFFICER OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Superintendent Brooks in his report to the Boston Board of Education for 1910, regrets that there is no state Standard of Education in Massachusetts. He thinks that a uniform system would be beneficial by furnishing a suggestive outline of study that would be best suited to the educational needs of the state. This, of course, presupposes that those to whom the task of formulating the educational laws and regulations would be men endowed with wisdom, with foresight, with tact and with an *intimate* and *sympathetic* knowledge of all the classes of schools in the commonwealth.

Thanks to the wisdom and executive ability of Dr. Ryerson and his successors in the educational administration of the Province of Ontario, we have a system of education, that is well organized on the side of administration and possesses in addition clearly defined academic standards concerning the different classes of schools.

There will be, always, of course, room for difference of opinion as to the policy of any educational administration and this brings us face to face with the fact that the control of Public Education rests with the Legislative Assembly which represents the Public Opinion of the Province.

The desirability of assisting in the formation of an enlightened and progressive public opinion rests in no slight degree with the Public School Inspectors of the Province, by reason of their position, and from the frequent opportunities they have of meeting boards of trustees and by their addresses to those interested in matters concerning Education. As already indicated the administration of educational affairs in the Province is entrusted to the Department of Education, whose chief permanent officials are the Deputy Minister of Education and the Superintendent of Education.

The policy of the Department is formulated with the object of furnishing the best educational advantages *possible* for all the children attending the different kinds of schools. In order that this policy may be duly carried out Regulations are framed and instructions are issued (in the form of circulars) from time to time directing the High School, Continuation School and Public School Inspectors how the Departmental Regulations are to be carried out.

It must be conceded that we have an admirable system, as far as system can go, and it also must be admitted that system, has much to recommend it, but if administered with a greater regard for the letter than for the spirit of the regulations much harm will be done.

It is just here that the Inspector comes in touch with the Department at a vital point. He should give a loyal and hearty support to the educational policy of the Department which entrusts the administration of it to him. He should be willing to sink personal prejudice or personal advancement for the general good. Rarely has the Department failed to act on the well considered and unanimous advice of its inspectors. (May one venture to emphasize the desirability of the two words "well-considered" and "unanimous?"). It must be remembered, however, that one can do his best work only when his individuality is hampered as little as possible.

An enthusiastic and loyal *esprit de Corps* is as desirable among the inspectors as it is in the teaching staff, and further, it is absolutely necessary if the best results are to be obtained.

The Superintendent of Education in his relations to the Inspectors of the Province stands in somewhat the same relation that the Inspector does to the teachers with whom he co-operates. Knowing how vital it is to the success of our work, to have the cordial and united support of our teachers, we should be ready to accord the same support to the policy of the Superintendent.

The doing of one's duty earnestly and cheerfully may not be as spectacular as public (and private) fault-finding and opposition to any suggested improvements in the educational system, but it makes more for true progress. A general can win battles only when his brigade commanders carry out his orders promptly, intelligently and zealously. If in addition to this, there exists a personal loyalty and an implicit faith in the leader so much the greater will be the power of the army in achievement. No amount of system can take the place of the personal influence and inspiration in any undertaking which requires the services of men and women to make it a success.

THE INSPECTOR AS AN OFFICIAL OF THE LOCAL MUNICIPALITY,

It is here that there arises a sharp difference between the local educational authorities; in the case of the Inspector of Rural Schools the body that appoints him has no direct connection with

matters concerning education, while in the case of Inspectors of Urban centres the Boards that appoint are intimately connected with, and vitally interested in, education.

This difference results in giving the recommendations of the rural inspector a much greater weight of authority by reason of the fact that the trustee boards to whom they are made have no authority over the Inspector, who is also looked upon as the representative of the Department of Education, from which come large or small grants depending upon the inspectors' reports as to the observance or neglect of departmental regulations. On the other hand, the city Inspector works with a board that has the power of appointment and of fixing his salary; his recommendations for the betterment of schools must therefore depend largely upon his ability to convince the trustees of the wisdom and necessity of the changes proposed without the influence of an increased or a reduced grant.

Outside the differences noted, the work of the Public School Inspectors runs much along the same general lines, viz.: (1) Advising and aiding new teachers; (2) suggesting improved methods or new aims to others; (3) encouraging a deeper interest among teachers in their profession and all that pertains to it; (4) examining and testing the pupils in the different classes in the schools; all this is on the academic side. The Inspector does not stop here; he must be prepared to give expert advice and, what is more often needed, expert urging to boards of trustees as to school buildings, their proper lighting, heating and ventilation; the necessity of spacious playgrounds, pure water and proper equipment, both as to the physical and the intellectual needs of the pupils. The ability to do these things *well* cannot be tested by any academic degree an inspector may or may not have, valuable though these are in their place; it depends upon the inspector's power to convince and arouse the members of the trustee boards as to educational needs of the community. This power should be based on a broad outlook over the field of present-day educational needs reinforced by careful and intelligent study as to what *has been* and *is being done* in educational advancement and what are the local and national needs as regards the training of the youth of the country in order that they may be fitted to make the most of their opportunities in life.

THE INSPECTOR AS AN EDUCATIONAL LEADER IN THE COMMUNITY.

The Department of Education has, wisely one may say, prescribed as a minimum qualification for a Public School Inspector's Certificate an honour degree in Arts, a high professional certificate and practical experience in teaching. There still remains a qualification without which the richest gifts of intellect and the highest academic honours are valueless; this qualification comprises all that goes to make up a pleasing and powerful personality—wisdom, tact, firmness, kindness, courtesy and charity are a few of the attributes one can mention.

When one possessing the qualities, attributes and training outlined above is entrusted with the administration of a group of schools, rural or urban, his possibilities for doing good are very great indeed.

Is the picture that I have outlined too ideal; or do you find your coats fit uncomfortably on the shoulders by reason of sprouting wings?

The position of Public School Inspector in every locality naturally and rightly is one that attracts to it a large share of public attention. People are eager and anxious to learn about the methods, aims, and results arrived at in *Their Schools*.

It is said that some of the most remarkable diplomatic triumphs have been achieved by the negotiator telling the straight truth to those with whom he was dealing. Does this not indicate to us that the wisest way in dealing with the public is to take it into our confidence and explain all matters connected with the conduct of the schools, the causes leading to the departmental changes; suggesting the need for improvements and in every way informing the public mind so that an intelligent and powerful Public Opinion will be created that will consistently and cheerfully support the Department of Education and the School Boards in their laudable efforts to make our system of Education more useful, more practical and more helpful than it is at present.

Every department of our social, industrial and professional life is continually undergoing changes and re-adjustments and this is (or should be) as true of Education as of the other activities of life. The running stream encounters rocks, meets obstacles and is tossed about, but it maintains its freshness, its sparkle and its life. The inspector to be a worthy leader in educational administration must not only be acquainted with the living currents of educational thought; he must *be a part of the current itself*. He

must have the wisdom to select what is best suited for the needs and development of the children in the locality; he must have the foresight to advise measures that will meet the wider needs of the nation and he must have the imagination that can grasp the greatest possibilities of the human race.

Some of the problems that are pressing for solution are: How can our schools be made to provide an education that will be an aid in actual life, that will develop the mind and body concurrently, that will make the child's school life as real and attractive as life is to him out-of-doors, in the shop or on the farm?

How can we make the school a social centre of the district? Can we make more use of the school buildings and the school playgrounds than at present when they stand idle for 75 per cent. of the time? We have in the comprehensive and suggestive Report of Superintendent Seath on "Education for Industrial Purposes," a splendid example of what can be done to inform and "re-form" Public Opinion in the matter of "Education for Efficiency." The question naturally arises, how can the Inspector best reach the public, touching the questions which he wishes to explain to them or concerning which he wishes to advise them? The usual means are the published reports of the School Boards in Urbabn centres and of the rural inspectors. This brings us to the chief means of disseminating information and advice respecting the schools, viz., the newspapers. All must frankly admit that our newspapers are, generally speaking, always willing to publish full accounts of what is being done in our schools, changes and improvements that are being suggested, and often they go further; the influence of the editorial columns is used to support and advocate forward movements in educational policy, whether initiated by the Department of Education, by the Board of Education or by the Inspector.

THE INSPECTOR AS A CO-WORKER WITH THE TEACHERS.

Important as are the three foregoing divisions of the Inspector's work they are far inferior in importance and significance to his duties as a worker with his fellow-teachers. The soul of any educational system is the teacher. School Laws, School Regulations, Special Instructions and such like make up the *Letter*; but the *Spirit* is contained in living, loving and inspiring teaching.

The Inspector's greatest opportunity for social service comes to him in co-operating with his fellow-teachers. If he is not a teacher among teachers, much will be lost in the way of confidence in co-operation and in achievement. Only in so far as the *Spirit* exceeds the *Letter* will the result rise above the dull level of mediocrity. We hear much in these days about the need of accuracy, the neglect of drill and repetition, the lack of ability to concentrate. The criticism is just and pertinent, but is it not possible to secure these desirable qualities by skilfully utilizing the natural activities and interests of children and by inspiring an *Inward* impulse instead of applying an *Outward* impetus?

One may follow the daily routine of his duties carefully and conscientiously, seldom or never touched with its true spiritual import; another engaged in the same kind of occupation will find in it possibilities and pleasures undreamed of by his prosaic companion—the former is an *artisan*, the latter is an *artist*.

Happy and fortunate indeed will be the condition of a country when all of its teachers shall have become artists. Can we as inspectors do anything to inspire our teachers to zealously strive for better insight into child-nature for higher ideals of professional attainments and for the truest possible development of human character?

The work of the Inspector that counts most is the visit to the class-room, the meeting with the teachers for heart-to-heart talks and frank discussion of the many problems that arise from day to day. These meetings are most helpful in Urban centres, for then the teachers of a single grade can meet the inspector immediately after he has finished inspecting that particular class, the teachers of which sometimes form quite a large group. Much good can be accomplished by the teachers of a grade undertaking to investigate some phase of child study bearing on the school programme, comparing their individual conclusions which are often strikingly similar. Last term the teachers of Grade IV, London (fifteen in all), appointed small committees to prepare suggestive outlines of their work in different subjects for the school year. These were submitted to me with a request that I should add some general hints along general lines. When this was done copies were printed on the Neostyle, so that each teacher and each principal received a copy. This may be followed by each grade.

The Teachers' Association in the larger sense does for the teachers what the grade meetings do in a more restricted way. There is, however, a danger in too much talk and too much theory. As an aid to the Teachers' Institute a substitute is sometimes adopted for it. It is for the teachers, as a body, to pay a visit of a day or two to some other county or city, preferably to one outside our own province in order to observe others at work and to see how other systems are operated.

This latter looks feasible and sounds as if it would be an easy thing to arrange, but when tried you will find that considerable energy needs to be expended to overcome the constitutional inertia naturally existing in every body of human beings.

The bringing of public lecturers by the teachers in cities is a custom that is spreading every year; it is doing a good work in cultivating a public appreciation of art, history, biography and literature.

The teacher's attitude to his work is a pretty sure index of the results he will achieve. If he looks upon it merely as a means of livelihood it is not probable that his pupils will have as high ideals as if their teacher were possessed of a high professional spirit. In this connection the Inspector can do much to encourage the growth of a spirit of professional duty and professional zeal. He should be prepared to recommend and urge the reading of professional books, not only those dealing with single subjects, but those treating of education in a larger and broader way, like Munsterberg's "Psychology and the Teacher," Rowe's "Habit and Habit Formation."

As will be noticed the whole of the fourth subdivision of this paper, "The Inspector as a co-worker with a teaching staff," can be summed up in the phrase "*The Personal Influence of the Inspector with his Teachers.*"

When one has to deal with from one hundred to one hundred and sixty or seventy individuals, each with his own opinions and (it may be) prejudices more or less firmly fixed, the magnitude and difficulty of his task can be appreciated.

I am firmly convinced that we should encourage each teacher to preserve his individuality, as much as it is possible in keeping with departmental regulations and the broad general principles of pedagogic practice. One's most valuable asset, whether he be a teacher or inspector, is his own self-respect. This can be preserved by encouraging one to express himself freely and frankly,

with the result that the work will be done with an enthusiasm and a zeal that rigid restrictions will repress and kill. The gift of inspiration in its perfection is one of supreme value, but unfortunately it is but rarely found. Everyone, however, has in some measure the power to inspire or influence others and this should be extended by constant care and patient effort, for the truest test of our work is our ability to inspire our teachers with higher ideals and influence them to regard their work with the eye of an artist.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

OUR EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES AND HOW WE ARE MEETING THEM.

BY DR. WHITE.

Gentlemen,—This is a subject of great magnitude and cannot in any way be dealt with exhaustively in the time at my disposal, so that you will understand my remarks as merely suggestive, so as to bring this, which I deem an important question, before this Association.

The subject, as you will notice, falls naturally into two great divisions:

1.—*Our Educational Responsibilities.*

- (a) The State's responsibilities.
- (b) The responsibility of the local authorities, trustees, etc.

2.—*How We Are Meeting Them.*

- (a) What the State is doing.
- (b) What the local authorities are doing.

3.—*Conclusion.*

Some of the present day needs, or what we lack.

1. I would like to say in the beginning that the tendency throughout the world is toward making education a national question, and this view is gaining ground in Canada. At present each Province has its own system of education. The State should provide such an education as will conserve the best tradition of the State, and, at the same time, provide for the realization of its highest ideals.

2. The strength of a State in its final analyses is not in its natural resources, but in the manhood of its citizens. The education which makes good citizens gives at the same time the best moral strength. Our Dominion has reached nearly the 8,000,000 mark in population, and at the present time many sturdy emigrants, English, Irish and Scotch, are leaving the old sod to win their way to fortune and fame in our golden West; also many of our American cousins are trekking across the border bringing their energy and wealth to compete with our own people in making our vast prairie provinces blossom as a rose, and, incidentally to enjoy real and true freedom.

If these and the natural increase were the only sources of addition to the population of this country our questions of Politics, Religion and Education would be comparatively easily solved; but added to these we have Russians, Germans, Italians, Japanese, Chinese, and, in fact, people from almost every country in the world are coming in scores and hundreds to our shores knocking at the ocean gateways for admission. These latter emigrants are scattered, especially in the towns and cities, from St. John in the East to Vancouver in the West, and to make of these divergent elements true Canadians is one of the greatest questions that is before us as a nation to-day.

Just how great this increase of population is going to be in the future is a matter of conjecture. No less an authority than Lord Strathcona is reported to have said that the Dominion population will be nearly 100,000,000 in fifty years. If this is true, it only adds to the bigness of the question.

I think, gentlemen, that it is a fundamental principle to which there will be no exception taken that the greatest elements in nationalizing a people are Religion and Education, and I might even put Education first. Let me say this, that a great, grand, far-seeing work is before our Churches and Schools if we would escape the great vortex of confusion and disaster into which the American people find themselves plunged to-day. I tremble for the people of the United States when their foreign population directed and controlled by low professional politicians sway such an important influence on their elections.

And, have we been slumbering too long? Has the warning come too late? I am told that whole wards in the City of Winnipeg, where scarcely a word of English is spoken, are controlled

by one or two men, and their election to a seat in the City politics is almost assured.

Rudyard Kipling says:—

“East is East and West is West,
And ne’er these twain shall meet.”

But they must meet if our country is to prosper, and they will meet only as they are brought together in our schools and taught the two principles of freedom and liberty.

Now, this end will not be accomplished by erecting great Universities, by research in Art, Science and Literature, not by building up our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, not by the delicate interpretation of scriptural truths by higher critics, but by thorough and careful education of the common people on questions and subjects that will form an important part in their future lives.

A prominent educationist says that technical education means putting the whole boy to school, and as a whole boy has a body as well as a mind, so if either is neglected, he is only partly educated. The education of the body here referred to is not that received in a gymnasium, nor has it a special reference to physical culture, but the training of the mental and bodily faculties, so that they may easily and satisfactorily work together.

Since the substance of this paper was prepared, we have received the Report of Dr. Seath on Education for Industrial Purposes, in which the State assumes largely the responsibilities we have suggested.

(b) The responsibilities of local authorities are more limited, but none the less important. Trustees are responsible for healthy surroundings. They should look carefully to the atmosphere of the school. By atmosphere I mean the general tone of the school. After all, the teacher makes the school, and the hiring of the teacher is the duty of the Trustees. A good teacher is always worth more than his salary, no matter how generously he is paid. We believe that schools should be as modern as circumstances will permit; they should be artistically built and tastefully decorated; the surroundings of our schools should be of such a character as to inspire in the breasts of the children a desire for higher, more refined and better things. Remember that a handsome painting on the wall of a school room will often do more good in moulding the mind of a child than hours of lessons on the beauties of

Browning or Burns. Trustees and ratepayers should co-operate with the teachers in school work. The visiting of schools by citizens and Trustees is an inspiration to both teacher and scholars. We should remember that the presence of a teacher in the school section is not alone to teach the pupils but to be the centre of moral and intellectual culture in the neighborhood, and the Trustees should co-operate with him in this regard.

(2) How we are meeting them.

(a) What the State is doing.

The Province provides that primary education shall be free. It prescribes a course of study, and in this aims to meet the needs of the civilization of to-day. Our Public School courses, besides the essentials, provides for drawing and art, construction work, manual training and household Science. Secondary education is provided in Household Science, Commercial Course, Agriculture, Manual Training and Art. University education is to a large extent provided for at the public expense. The State also trains teachers. The present aim is that the lowest certificate shall be a second-class. The older education was largely cultural; the newer education is to be cultural and vocational, hence the recent Bill making provision for Industrial Schools. And I want to say that if Technical and Industrial Education is going to be effective, it must be national.

Mr. W. Malloy, member for La Verandryre, of Manitoba, strongly attacks the scheme for a State University and said he would oppose it to the last. He said the money should be spent on elementary education, remarking that the present elementary education was shameful and outrageous. He declared that there were thousands of children in the Province who were brought up in ignorance.

(b) What the local authorities are doing:

Building new and up-to-date schools with modern heating, lighting and ventilating systems; also decorating and beautifying the grounds and exterior of the schools; providing teachers whose qualifications and general character make them good leaders and trainers of the young mind.

(3) *Conclusion*.—What do we lack of present day needs:

If we compare our schools of to-day with those of fifty or sixty years ago, certainly we will find great evidences of improvement; better looking and better built schools, more improved lighting,

heating and ventilating systems, handsome and well-equippd structures now take the place of the old log school, or the little red school house, on the Concession Line. Now, air is permitted to enter the school by measure only, and the heating system is regulated accurately by thermometer, while in olden times light came in on all sides, air entered from the open window or doors or between the logs or ill-fitting sashes, and the source of heat was the large box-stove fed from the generous pile of maple or beech. Our teachers are not merely bright young men and women of the school section who have been examined by the Trustees as to their proficiency, nor are our teachers disappointed old-country men whose only qualification to teach was a smattering of education and an expert ability to use the tawse in season and out of season. No! our teachers are refined men and women, graduates of our Model or Normal Schools, or possess the degrees from one or other of the Universities of the Dominion. Our Educational System has been spoken of both at home and abroad as the best in the World, and the question I want to ask is are we doing as good work in our schools as we ought to do. Are we with all our modern facilities and advantages spoken of above turning out from our schools so much better equipped boys and girls, young men and women, than were turned out of the crude and poorly equipped schools of fifty years ago? In other words, are we educating our children in the truest and broadest meaning of that word?

During many years the tendency of legislation has been to minimize the work of the Public Schools, so that now their work falls far short of being commensurate with their capacity and their cost. The teaching standard has been raised so high "and rightly so," that the majority of teachers should be able to impart a large share of the Collegiate Institute work, and yet our rural schools have dwindled to one-half their former size. The school age has been practically reduced so that our schools are but little more than infant schools, and the highest application of a teacher's ability and education is to prepare a few little ones for the High School Entrance.

Under the present system pupils are shamed out of the Public Schols before they are far advanced in their teens as the preponderance of little ones makes the schools unattractive to the older ones. It seems to me that an effort should be made to infuse the Public Schools with that proper dignity and attractiveness

which they have in a great measure lost. I think the course of study should be extended, so as to be sufficient for those pupils whose life work will be outside of the professions. I would like to say just here that the scarcity of male teachers in our Public Schools is not alone due to insufficient remuneration, but to the fact that school work lacks in breadth and interest to such an extent as to make life too monotonous to be endured.

While provision is made for every child, as a matter of fact, many are growing to manhood and womanhood without an education. The Truancy Act is not a success. We are not meeting adequately changed conditions. Sufficient provision is not yet made, as I said before, for those who leave school at fourteen years of age. Skilled labor is more in demand than formerly. We are much behind Germany in our trade schools, also we are behind the United States in the application of Domestic Science, to practical lessons in home making and home keeping.

It seems desirable that the schools should hold a more prominent place in the community, and its work should not be limited to the regular school attendance, but it should be an educational centre for the life of the Town or Section. The schools are not the aid to public morals that they should be. Immorality is more prevalent in schools, and consequently out of schools, than it ought to be, and the time for education in this regard is not fully taken advantage of. The school is not the aid to public health that it ought to be. Teachers do not know enough about matters of this kind, or if they do know, they do not impart it to the young mind when it is most likely to receive and assimilate it.

Let me conclude by asking a few questions.

1. The School Curriculum:

Is it adequate?

Is it overcrowded?

Is it properly arranged?

2. The School as a means of mental development:

Does it accomplish in this connection all that can be reasonably expected of it?

3. The School as a Social Centre:

Are we getting the maximum use out of our school buildings and equipments?

Is the teacher as useful outside of school as he might reasonably be expected to be?

4. Do we make sufficient use of our supplementary educational agencies, such as—
 Night Schools,
 Libraries,
 Lecture Courses, etc.
 5. Have we sufficient School visiting by Trustees and Citizens?
 Is there as spontaneous and whole-soul co-operation of the community with the teacher himself and Teacher's Institutes as there should be?
 6. The scarcity of qualified Teachers in the Province:
 How it can be remedied; I am told that 40 per cent. of the schools of this Province are without qualified teachers.
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SOME ASPECTS OF THE MODERN SCHOOL.

H. T. J. COLEMAN, PH.D.

A Summary.

The economic aspect of the modern school appears more directly in the large outlay made annually in our country for the erection, maintenance and equipment of school buildings. The question of teachers' salaries has recently been much in prominence, because of the emigration of large numbers of our teachers to the North-West Provinces. We surely must not regard the lowering of the academic requirements for teachers' certificates and the establishment of Model Schools with their ridiculously inadequate courses as a permanent solution of the problem. Teaching must vie with other callings in the amount of remuneration offered, and in the permanence and dignity of the work it provides before the educational problem which confronts the people of Ontario to-day can be adequately solved. Moreover, the Province of Ontario surely cannot afford to allow the civilized world to infer that she can remain long undecided when she is asked to choose between spending more money on her schools and permanently lowering the professional requirements for teachers.

Only recently has teaching been thought of and spoken of as a profession. It is a matter of grave doubt if the title is at present justified. The genuine profession demands at least the fulfilment of three requirements: (1) The meeting of a large and widespread public need; (2) the existence of a body of experts devoted to the calling in question, and (3) the fact that these specially trained persons are actuated by a high ideal of public service.

Besides the economic and the professional aspects of the modern school there is the social aspect. The emphasis upon this aspect is shown in the recent consideration shown in legislation and in educational discussions to what may be called the industrial basis of citizenship. The term "basis," as used in this connection, is not wholly desirable. Industry in the sense of its material outcome is a phase of life, not its basis. The basis of citizenship is not primarily in hand-work or in head-work, but in what may be called the civic virtues. In this connection we should

remember the words of the philosopher, that virtue is not so much a matter of knowledge as of habit. One ideal of the modern school is to realize its possibilities in inculcating the habits which are the essence of such virtues as patriotism, temperance, honesty and purity.

It is certainly important that the school should not undertake work which it cannot do, and which should remain as permanent responsibilities of the home, the church and other social institutions. A recent writer has very properly remarked: "To expect school education to determine moral development is like expecting a city water supply to abolish all sickness."

THE TEACHING OF MORALS IN OUR SCHOOLS.

W. T. WHALE.

The morals of our country to-day are at a low ebb. They are far from being what they might be, and the morals of our race are becoming more and more endangered each year by the immigrants who come to our land; as the different nationalities gather together and people congregate in large centres morality decreases.

The question is, What can the school do to raise the standard of morals in our land? They can do much, but the home and society must co-operate with the school. We must begin in the home, when the babe is but a few months old; we must form very early habits of right actions. Here is where the kindergarten plays a very important part in the moral education of the race. Here we have the children of tender years and unpolluted minds, and as it is a well-known fact that they will form habits, we cannot keep them from doing it, so what we want is teachers in our kindergarten schools who not so much teach morals, but live them. We ourselves are given to imitating others; we have our ideals and follow them. How much more does the young mind copy from their elders? Then give us teachers for these young children who live exemplary lives; are consistent in what they say and do. Nothing causes a child, or even a grown person, to lose trust in the one who is over them as to have that one say one thing and do another, or perform some little mean act, or deceive. We find too much of such things done with parents, older brothers and sisters and with our school teachers; is it any wonder we find the child of tender years forming habits or doing things which we, as civilized people, call immoral?

Children will form habits—you cannot keep them from it. They will either be what you wish them to be, or they will be something else. The child should be led to form habits of right action, so that right action becomes natural and easy; then when they wake up to a consciousness later of the reasons why this is right and why that is wrong, they also wake up at the same time to a feeling that the right is easy to do. On the contrary, if they form wrong habits, then when they wake up to the consciousness of what is right and what is wrong in the matter, they will also

wake up with the feeling that the right is hard and disagreeable to do. The forming of these right habits and, to a large extent, the future destiny of the child, lies with the training received by words and actions from the parents and teachers of the infant classes. The nominal goodness of a little child is unconscious goodness, and unconscious growth into right habits of living is the ideal moral training for young children from the point of view of habit.

The child grows and develops mentally and physically. The greatest growth is between the age of five and fourteen; the age when the children of this country are in attendance at Public School. They have reached the stage in their development when they know right from wrong. Now the teacher with a good moral character may reason matters out with the child; show them wherein the wrong is wrong and the right is right. If the teachers can interest the children and are loved by the children, they can do much in moulding the thought and actions of those under their care. That in which children are interested is the thing of which they will persistently think, and that is the thing they will ultimately do; therefore, the necessity of training the thought of the children along moral lines. Indeed, it seems to be one of the highest functions of school education to give the child the right attitude toward life, to interest them in the things which are worth while and to prevent them from becoming interested in things which are not worth while; so that interest is one of the great moral forces of the world. But to interest the child in study, work or moral cause we must be interested ourselves. There is no use giving injunctions to the child to do this or that and fail to do it ourselves.

As I said before the children imitate their elders. They imitate their saying or doings, good or bad, and adopt their notions, because they like the person they are with; thus the associations affect the morals of the children. Give the children the best environment—they absorb it as a plant absorbs moisture and sunshine. The teachers can do much to create a healthy environment in and around the school by having the mind supplied with noble ideas, which are transferred to those around them. But what use is it for a teacher to teach morals, live a moral life and have a moral environment around the school when society sanctions the saloon with its demoralizing effect, or permits the companies with

their five-cent moving picture shows to come to town and attract the children, not only to spend their money, but to have their thought and vision filled with immoral things. Society owes it to itself to suppress, as far as possible, and keep out of sight the vice of which is found so much in our towns and cities. I am glad to say not so much in our rural districts. These influences will undo all that can be done by the teacher in the school.

The teacher may make the moral training of the pupils efficient by reasoning with them and pointing out the evils of wrong-doing, for the approval or disapproval of the teacher carries great weight. Then the teachers may, by being interested themselves in the reading of good literature, cause the boys and girls to become interested, and once the interest is created for good literature they will have no love for the light, trashy books which are on the market to-day. Then the teachers must be themselves the living embodiment of what they are attempting to teach. The child's character is more vitally influenced by what the teachers are than by what they say. They can also by entering into the life of the children make the recess and games a training class in courtesy, honour, sympathy and justice, and teach them consideration for the rights and well-being of others; then by believing in the pupils they have a great influence by letting them know that they have confidence in them, and expect them to be honourable and gentlemanly; the child has more respect for the teacher, and it works better than any corporal punishment.

As the boys and girls grow older, enter High School and pass on to University, or follow some vocation in life, the lessons and the influence shed around them by the teacher have a lasting effect. Fond memories often wander back to the days spent at the Public School and those memories never leave them.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE EMPIRE.

COL. S. HUGHES, M.P.

Do children begin the active duties of life at too early an age?

General Wolfe, the hero of Quebec, was lieutenant and adjutant of his regiment at the age of fifteen years.

General George Washington, "father of his country," was in charge of a survey party when sixteen years old, and when but nineteen he led an expedition through the Alleghanies, he being a British Virginia militiaman, and defeated a French force which had invaded British territory.

It is well known that William Pitt was Prime Minister of England while a mere youth.

In every walk may be found the records of men who began active life in early youth, and who maintained throughout a successful career, displaying even in advanced age the sterling qualities of energetic noble manhood instilled during adolescence. Experience ever proves it wise to entrust youth with responsibility.

Some Canadian educational authorities would say that these youngsters should have been in the junior forms of our High Schools instead of moulding empires.

It was the privilege of the writer to teach school for fourteen years, beginning a mere lad sixteen years of age. What success attended his efforts may best be observed in the men and women who were his students. The rolls of university professors, judges, barristers, clergymen, doctors, teachers, business men, officers and heads of institutions afford him the honour of claiming, "These were mine."

From personal experience, therefore, will the relationship existing between the youth and the Empire be reviewed. The tendency of the vast majority, heads of families, educationists, ecclesiastics and business men, is towards *repression*, or rather *suppression*, of the child as well as the man. From earliest infancy should not the child be drawn forth, or encouraged to come forth?

The *individuality* should be developed. Little duties should from the very earliest year be assigned the child. The method should be suggestion, as far as practicable.

One of the most successful teachers in early Upper Canada days, finding himself in a new Western Ontario settlement, where neither fathers nor mothers, in their efforts to establish a home, had much time at their disposal to look after the tidy appearance of the pupils, used to relate how he succeeded not only in instilling the habit of most scrupulous cleanliness, but also a system of development among the community, which to-day places it far to the front in superior civilization and human progress, even after the lapse of nearly half a century. His primary object was to encourage cleanliness among his pupils. The secondary object was the development of the individuality, the uplifting and ennobling of young manhood and womanhood. Every morning after school opening the teacher would occupy a few minutes asking questions, such as: "How many of you helped mother with her work last night or this morning? How many the father? Did any of you carry in the wood for mamma? Did you help mamma wash and comb little sister's hair? Was mamma pleased at your helping her?" etc., etc. In each kindly encouragement was given each pupil who had helped; until soon not a child but every evening and morning became a help rather than a burden to the parents. Needless to state that teacher never found it necessary to request the parents to tidy up their children. In pursuance, too, of the policy of judicious, suggestive questioning, the *individuality* of each was developed to the highest degree. It was all accomplished, too, without the least friction.

A review of noble manhood and womanhood reveals that virtue, honour, courage, justice or fair play, constancy of character, firmness with gentleness, judgment with tact, fearlessness in adhering to the right, truthfulness, absence of deceit, and the practice of temperance are among the essentials conducive to the highest development of that noble condition in humanity. Add to these the moral and secular education, loyalty and patriotism, physical and mental development, and religious instruction practical and free from superstition, but based on broad democracy of spirit, and on the teaching, the charity and love, and the example and practice of "Him who gave himself for mankind." Given these, and should not the child be fairly well equipped to grow into a proper citizen of the great British Empire!

But are all or nearly all the youth of the land well equipped in these very desirable accessories? Are the maxims firmly impressed on the minds of all citizens, young and older, that: "A

thousand years scarce serve to form a State; an hour may lay an Empire in the dust?" Or are the minds of the nation half sufficiently instructed that, "*A score of years scarce serve to mould a character; a moment's folly may wreck that character forever.*"

In many homes, in very many educational institutions, is not education simply regarded as cramming "book-learning" into the craniums of the youth, just as a traveller packs his valise for a long journey? Everything is just "shoved in."

To train the youthful mind how to study, what to study, how to master problems, how to attain the desired end by and through the efforts of the pupil himself, of course aided by kindly direction and suggestion by the teacher, should be the aim of the master. Usually, however, the experience of the writer is common to all, only few escape so quickly as he did. Filled with zeal and ambition to work almost miracles in educational methods; fortified with both Model and Normal School training; proud of his First Class Provincial Normal School Certificate, at sixteen years of age he began extravagantly wasting chalk; doing all the blackboard work himself, wearing out brushes and almost the only suit of clothes in his possession; injuring his eyesight by the dust and by correcting examination papers and dictation exercises.

At the end of three months, although the discipline of the class was perfect, there was no appreciable addition to the knowledge of the pupils. So a council of war of one person was held, with the result that thenceforward the principle that "people learn by doing" was rigidly adhered to. The chalk was used by the pupils; examinations were reduced to a minimum; the papers were corrected chiefly by the students themselves under kindly and friendly supervision; while the teaching of spelling by "dictation" alone was discarded as a "delusion and a snare," and was never afterwards resorted to as a regular practice. The results have been that both in the struggles with examinations and in the greater battle of life these students have attained the very highest standing; one of the chief characteristics of each being a fearless, indomitable *will*, which declines to quail or bow before difficulties.

But there are negative issues in child development. One of the most depressing and long remaining evil influences besetting young boys and girls is the bully—the tyrant. Who but has observed whether in street play or in school games, or in the broader field or life, that enormity, the bully? His characteristics are ever

the same. To transform such characters into proper persons is, as a rule, difficult. He is usually a coward, cunning, self-conceited, self-loved, and rarely up to the average in ability. A judicious teacher usually redeems a majority of such fellows by firm, yet kind, reasoning; others by gentle ridicule and exposure; while others are amenable only to sterner measures.

How many young people pass into the world with the firm conviction that anarchy is a proper form of government, simply because of bullying being practised upon them in school days! For the welfare of humanity there must be imprinted on the character, on the very soul of each boy and girl, a deep sense of the certainty of justice and fair play. But a warped, revengeful, bitter, desperate, almost vicious, spirit is found at times in youngsters, because of malignant bullying in early life. Whether in school or business, or national life, the tyrant, be he boy, or man, or corporation, should be broken and given to know and made to practise that the ambitions, desires and vanities of one must be subservient to the desires of all; and that:

“His safety must his liberty restrain.
All join to guard what each desires to gain.
Forced into virtue thus by self-defence,
Even tyrants learned justice and benevolence.
Self-love forsook the path it first pursued
And found the private in the public good.”

No tyrant should ever be tolerated in a free community. The contempt and, failing that, the co-operative authority of his fellows should be meted out to every tyrant or bully, in any and every sphere, in most effective fashion.

Have we ever considered the value to the Empire of one properly developed human soul? It is generally conceded that *New Zealand* leads the nations in holding at its proper value the life and training of the child. In a recent address in Canada by Sir Joseph Ward, Premier of New Zealand, now *en route* to Great Britain to attend the Inter-Imperial Conference of Great Britain and her colonies, it was learned that in that far-away land, and even in the remotest parts of those fertile islands, nurses, medical officers and supplies suitable are furnished for women and children in critical periods of their existence. The trifling cost of a few dollars is nothing in comparison with what a healthy, well-developed, well-trained, well-educated young man or woman is to

that splendid colony. Opportunities for education in its broadest sense are placed within the easy reach of every citizen, and each is required to avail himself or herself thereof. As a natural consequence *New Zealanders*, as a class, are generally conceded to be the most highly developed people in the world to-day.

Those privileged to meet the New Zealanders as soldiers in South Africa, were impressed with the easy self-confidence, firm, yet kindly, individuality, gentlemanly yet fearless dash in the hour of trial; as well as the ingrained loyalty and noble manhood which everywhere characterized those gallant fellows. They knew their own minds, and had a fair conception of what was going on in the minds of their enemies; they readily grasped every situation, and they fearlessly executed every act they were called upon to perform. In the home, the business and the national life of New Zealand the same characteristics are found to dominate.

For successful child development there must be comradeship, or a "cameraderie," between teacher and pupils, and between parents and children. How many teachers and parents regularly have little informal conversations, heart-to-heart talks with the children on the problems arising in the proper development of a child? How often are the little ones informally impressed with their duty to parents, to teachers, to other children, to inferior animals? Is the child taught his duty to himself and to his own manhood? Well-directed appeals, not to the vanity, not to the self-love, not to the self-conceit, not to the self-interest, but to the *honest pride* of a boy or a girl are most beneficial. In suggestive language it is important that each be shown that the Lord intended him or her to fulfil some noble mission in life. An appreciation of his or her own worth, capabilities and possibilities should be created in the heart of each. Such are important in the development of firm-willed, noble, honourable, virtuous manhood and womanhood. Let the *will power* be strengthened. The tendency is too much towards weakening it.

Should a young boy or girl ever be turned on the world without a proper understanding of the value of money? How it is acquired? How it is kept and how it should be expended? How many young people are ever taught the value of money or of property? Or how many are trained how to use it? Many children grow up regarding money as something to hold just long enough to reach the nearest candy or toy-shop, there to be exchanged for slow poisons; while later, money is the medium by

which the youth too often finds himself adorning the end of a cigarette, or a saloon.

Teacher and parent should by illustrations, and *always kindly*, lead the children to know the folly, the offensiveness, the wrong of such procedure. The serious problems of life depending upon the proper use of money are rarely, if ever, impressed on young people. The result is that in a large percentage of cases young men and women begin life with no proper ideas of the value, the use, or the responsibilities in regard to handling money, or, indeed, property of any kind.

Another aspect of life in both young and old is often either run at one extreme or the other; that is the amusement view. Let children, as well as grown persons, have plenty of honest fun. But from the outset carefully draw the line between what constitutes *fun*, on the one hand, and what too often passes for *fun* on the other hand. In brief, clearly distinguish between fun and rowdyism, or ruffianism, or degrading, though what are too often termed fashionable, pastimes. Life in every sphere becomes monotonous without variety.

Only recently a society woman in a Pennsylvania town complained to the School Board against a teacher who played games with the children, and in so doing, on one occasion, in vaulting over a fence displayed a small portion of her stocking. To the credit of the town, pupils and parents alike, save and except the four or five complaining, loyally supported the teacher. Such a girl would surely exercise a noble influence upon her class. If more parents and teachers "chummed" it with the children there would be much less hypocrisy and deception abroad in the world. Have you ever taken a very young boy or girl on a trip? Next to carrying a crying baby during the long hours after midnight there is nothing so develops the "milk of human kindness" in one's heart as having a youngster tormenting with a thousand and one questions, which must be answered, under conditions permitting no escape. By all means let parents and teachers make "chums" or comrades of the children. The gain will not all be on the side of the children.

In youth, and early youth at that, is the period, too, when the wise parent and teacher will judiciously fortify the mind and heart of the child to be strong to avoid pitfalls, to shun habits which, if practised, have only one ending. No great nation has ever yet fallen which has preserved its people virtuous and moral.

Another feature necessary in the mental, moral and physical upbuilding of the child, as well as of the nation, is not understood by very many of the grown-up population. It is one upon which, next to religious history, more narrow prejudice, absolute ignorance and perverted energy have been manifested than upon any other aspect of national upbuilding and child development.

Many persons, teachers, parents, ecclesiastical and national leaders conceive the fallacious idea that to properly govern humanity it must be "kept down," repressed, the spirit broken, the child not trusted. These same types of mind speak of "*discipline*" as a sort of tyranny, a restraining, a suppression. Such was the "discipline" in the "Dark Ages" of humanity. Such, unfortunately, in some minds it is yet understood to be.

But, true discipline is the training, the polishing, the educating, the developing of the child or the adult so as to give character, culture, individuality, information, self-control, pride, fearlessness, honor, virtue, and the other positive qualities necessary to the upbuilding of manhood and womanhood. A disciplined youth is not one trained by repression or other negative and penitentiary forms of control; but one who is ruled by positive and noble characteristics developed *within* himself; in brief, one who knows under all circumstances how to take care of himself, of his friends, of his country.

The basis of all good government is the good boy and the good girl; not the "goody-goody" kind, but the good. Various lands at different times have tested many modes of producing that "good boy," that "good girl," and that "good government." The ecclesiastical rule has ever proven a teetotal failure. The "divine right" autocrat, the tyrant, the oligarchic form, has produced nearly as terribly bad results as the ecclesiastical. The ultra-radical or uncontrolled or mob rule has been even worse than the preceding. The only form of human government that has produced even a fair percentage of good government, of good boys, of good girls in any nation, is the system gradually growing for ages, repeatedly checked, and finally fairly well established by William, Prince of Orange, in 1690, in England. "That system trusted and trusts humanity. It recognized each individual as a free agent, a member of the community with a voice and vote in the government thereof; but expected to educate himself to the needs of the national life, and *subject* not to the whims and

fancies of his own sweet self, or may be of his own disordered and unbalanced notions; but to the rules and laws that he and his fellows collectively, and in deliberative council should establish for their own government. In short a co-operative democracy, a government by the people, through the people and for the people, wherein the aim should be the greatest good for the greatest number; and with *justice* to all. This mode of government implies a *trusting* one's fellow man, a placing in each of confidence in his capability and wish to do right. This system, despite imperfections, intrigues for its overthrow and want of having all the people educated up to the standard has succeeded beyond all expectations."

But in case of men or nations doing wrong there must be some controlling power to protect the honest and innocent members of society. The parents, the school teachers, the clergymen and kindred persons in the land lead positively in the moral upbuilding of nations. But equally necessary are the negative guardians of public and private rights. The constable, the lawyer, the gaoler, the sheriff, the magistrate, the judge, the policeman, the soldier, each and all form a necessary element in human society. The expense of these positive and negative forms of human development constitutes one of the greatest burdens upon a people. But "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," and unless humanity is to be permitted to fall back into the degradation, ignorance and debauchery of by-gone ages, each succeeding year must find lovers of liberty zealous, earnest and energetic in instituting into succeeding armies of youth the great principles absolutely necessary to a nation's freedom and upbuilding.

Intemperance, falsehood, tyranny, lasciviousness, hypocrisy, rapine and robbery, and many more negative, and evil weaknesses in humanity, though greatly on the decline, are yet all too powerful in men and in nations.

Reason and the great array of positive sources of man's upbuilding, cannot always cope with these. Therefore, the element of physical control must be preserved. The millenium has not yet dawned. A chain is as strong only as its weakest link. Society is secure only so far as its most dangerous elements are controlled.

For this physical control in society and among nations there must be preparation and provision. In the olden fendal days of divine right rulers in church and state such rule was purely

dogmatic. Under modern British democratic rule, where every man is equally a portion of the state with his most lordly neighbor, each must be ready to do his proper part, when duty calls, towards the preservation of law and order among the people and between nations. In these days of scientific warfare men must be trained, for a mere handful of trained men could readily defeat a hundred times their number of untrained men. As an illustration, how often do the papers report where two or three daring trained desperadoes have held up a town of thousands of inhabitants and have escaped unharmed.

The following proposition is submitted without fear of successful contradiction. Take two boys. Train one from the age of eight to fourteen years in regular military drill, exercises and training; accustom him to impart as well as receive the instruction, to command as well as to be commanded, for all learn by doing. Also permit the other one to grow up without the influences of military drill, exercises and training: but otherwise subject both to the same teaching and influences. The guarantee is easy that the lad who received the military training will stand more erect, be more highly cultured, mentally, morally and physically: be a nobler-minded, more open-hearted, level-headed, self-reliant and capable, honorable, lad than the other. He will be less liable to yield to the temptations besetting the pathway in life. His hands will not so readily be found stuck in his own or in another's pockets. Nor will he be so likely to be found an ornament at the end of a cigar, or around saloons and bar-rooms.

Then why should any maudlin, sloppy sentimentality be found prevailing in the land against the military training of the youth? The best way to preserve peace, to command respect, and to prevent invasion by some foreign bully, is to be in a position to make it extremely dangerous to such foreigner to dare invade our land. Untrained men in war-time are worse than idle baggage. They have to be both fed and paid. Baggage requires neither and is as formidable against an enemy. Untrained men are useless as a fighting machine. So they should not be tolerated. It is idle to say, "Oh, we are loyal to the core." Let such persons frankly understand that they are "not loyal to the core"; otherwise they would willingly fit themselves to be of service and let their loyalty prove itself. They would be neither ornament nor use.

Then why not adopt the means at hand, in the most economic

way and complete the educational training of the lads by perfecting them in military drill? It will cost practically nothing to the nation. What is learned as a boy is never forgotten as a man. Were this system adopted the nation would be ever ready at a moment's notice to repel any invasion upon her shores. Indeed no nation would ever dare attempt such invasion. Meantime the manhood would be elevated mentally, morally and physically; and the highest form of noble youth would be developed. The guarantee of perpetual peace would surely result.

Why has self-government been more or less of a success in Britain and her colonies and why not in some other lands is often asked. Is not the answer simple? The first essential of a country, properly self-governed, is a people whose superior qualities are highly developed, and such can only be found under a system kindred to the British. The individual forms the basis. The child becomes the individual man. The British system starts with the individual. Then divisions are made on the basis of interests. For example, school sections are supreme each in its own sphere. The town, village, and township municipalities are supreme each in its own sphere. So with the counties, the Provinces, and the Dominions. Each elector has voice and vote in his own school section, but not in adjoining one. Each has voice and vote in his own municipality, but not in the one adjoining. So each has voice and vote in his own province, but not in a neighboring one. Similarly each Canadian elector has voice and vote in his own Dominion of Canada, but not in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Britain or India. In national affairs, the electors only of Great Britain and Ireland have votes; but so also only they bear the burdens. Why should not there be formed for the whole Empire a Parliament wherein every component part named should have voice and vote, where each would bear a fair share of the burdens and be prepared, as in the South African war, to stand shoulder to shoulder with the gallant fellows from every other part of the empire for Liberty and Right?

To have a great nation one must begin by laying the foundations deep and strong in the little boys and girls in the homes and schools of the land. The development must not be by hazard; the element of chance must not enter. New Zealand's example of the value of the life of a mother and her babe must become contagious.

“ ‘Let there be light,’ God spoke of old,
 And over chaos dark and cold,
 And through the dead and formless frame
 Of nature, life and order came.”

The struggle has been long. A human skeleton of a very fair sample of a modern Englishman was recently excavated from a chalk pit in the Thames valley, which scientists assert was 170,000 years old. What has poor, old, down-trodden humanity been doing all those weary years? Groaning under the load of superstition and repression in various forms. The early call, “Let there be Light,” has been long, very long, in being answered. The “Light” is even yet dim. Humanity has too often shirked its duty.

In the upbuilding of the Empire each has a duty to perform. The trustees of the school stand among the first in that regard. Let them in the great upbuilding play a noble part. They each and all realize that:—

“There’s honor in the toiling part
 That finds us in the furrowed fields;
 It stamps a crest upon the heart
 Worth more than all your quartered shields.”

Let every encouragement by example and precept be given the youth of the land to become great and good men and women. May superstition, oppression and all the other negative qualities holding back the attainment of the highest perfection in humanity be eradicated. May charity, and love, honor, virtue, truth, and their kindred positive qualities, be instilled into each heart and mind, so that in every act they may live in practice. Instil into each the spirit of patriotism and the determination to be a trained, not an untrained, patriot.

“Never trust the soft breathing that preaches of Peace
 With a pledge giving lip and a smile lighted eye—
 Hear it all with good will, but be provident still
 With men that are earnest and powder that’s dry.”

Let all the Colonies with the Mother Land thus trained from year to year with unremitting zeal and thoroughness become

united in one great Parliament for the Empire, where each shall bear the burden and share the glory; each the dangers and blessings of that Empire; may all advance for the upbuilding of dear old down-trodden humanity, for the maintenance of law and order, and for the peace, prosperity and happiness of mankind, and be sheltered and powerful under the Union Jack, that herald of mercy as well as of might.

May all aspire for the day when with Britain and all her colonies and kinsmen there shall be—

A union of hearts and a union of hands,
A union none can sever,
A union of homes and a union of lands,
And the flag "British Union" Forever.

HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

THE DIETITIAN IN THE HOSPITAL.

BY KATE BAIRD, VICTORIA HOSPITAL, LONDON, ONT.

The dietitian in a hospital has ceased to be an innovation or an experiment, but has a real place.

Her training for her work, both theoretical and practical, is similar to that of the Household Science Teacher in a school. Owing to varying conditions and the newness of the work, what her duties are and the conditions under which she works are not so well known as is the work of the teacher in a school.

Different hospitals have different systems of work, depending on the size of the hospital, the breadth of view of the Superintendent of the training school and many other conditions. An outline of the system of work in Victoria Hospital, London, may be of interest to Household Science Graduates.

Three years ago the work consisted of a course of six weeks' practical instruction in the diet kitchen, four pupil-nurses forming one class. In addition the Junior year nurses were given a lecture course, one hour a week for twenty weeks, on "Foods and Nutrition."

Last year more time was allowed for the teaching of dietetics and consequently a fuller course was arranged. The time for the practical work was made two months instead of six weeks, the Junior Year Class were given the same lecture course as had been given the year before and the Intermediate Class had a more advanced lecture course on "The Composition of Foods," "The Working out of Balanced Meals," and "The Relation of Foods to Disease." Also the Senior Year nurses prepared a final demonstration of Invalid Cookery. In this way the interest in dietetics is maintained throughout the entire three years' course.

In their practical work the nurses prepare, under the instruction of the dietitian, the liquid and distinctly invalid diet for all the patients in the building and the meals for the private patients. The meals are arranged in four diets—House Diet, Restricted Diet, Semi-liquid and Liquid Diets. In addition, the nurses are taught to serve the meals they themselves prepare. They are subject to constant criticism, not only from those to whom the meals are served, but also from the Senior Year nurses who are doing special nursing, and who are anxious that the foods served to their patients be as carefully and skilfully prepared as they themselves could prepare them. In this and other ways two months of cooking and serving foods for all classes of patients develops a keenness of preception in regard to this work that could not be produced by the best of lectures and demonstrations.

If in a fairly large hospital a dietitian and an assistant dietitian undertook the work of buying all food supplies and administering the work of cooking them a better course of instruction could be arranged for the nurses. Each nurse could then be taught not only economical buying, but the buying of the food supplies really best for the use they are to serve. The large amount of foods required to be bought would allow each class of nurses during their two months in the diet kitchen good training in the selection and buying of foods. This training would be an invaluable asset to the nurse who after graduating undertakes Institutional Work.

This same course could be arranged in a small hospital having a dietitian who did this work in addition to the teaching of the nurses.

Smaller hospitals in Canada having a training school of from fifteen to twenty-five nurses have left dietetics almost entirely out of their lecture course, not only for lack of a competent teacher, but also because they did not realize the necessity for teaching this subject. Now their students are asking for this instruction and the Superintendents themselves feel that the spirit of the times demand it. A very desirable position for a Household Science graduate is now open, that of teacher of dietetics in three small hospitals, spending about three months of the year in each.

The nurse has more latitude in the matter of diets than in any other branch of her work. The study of dietetics, if sufficient intelligent interest be aroused, becomes not only a study

to please the appetite of the patient, but to really see curative results from dieting without the aid of medicine. Nurses dieting rest cure patients are interested in the time once a week when the patients are weighed and feel rewarded if a gain of four or five pounds is noted or in some cases if there has been any gain at all. Then, too, the dieting of anemic patients, of diabetes, of different kinds of digestive disease, of rheumatism and of various other diseases becomes to the nurse who understands the relation of foods to these diseases much more absorbing than the preparation of dainty foods, important as this is in itself.

Each year we have in the training school a larger percentage of the nurses who have been taught Domestic Science in Public Schools and Collegiate Institutes, and the method with which they set about their work, their accuracy and their results testify to the value of this training in schools.

THE TEACHING OF DOMESTIC ART. (Abridged.)

MISS MARIE A. DE LAPORTE.

You all know Domestic Art includes a great many different kinds of work—handicrafts of many varieties, sewing, millinery, textiles, a study of color and of art for the house and personal adornment—and it is taught to stimulate an appreciation of the home and home industries.

Why so little attention was paid to sewing and other household arts when first taught in schools was because they were left for women without scientific training; hence sewing did not receive as much respect as other lines of studies. We teachers of the present day should strive to raise Domestic Art to a high standard, and have a chair for it established in our University, for is not the home of the greatest importance to the country?

Sewing has a great influence on a girl's character; two of the most important results are cleanliness and neatness.

In a sewing-class a teacher should aim to have the garments well made, simple, and of suitable materials. She should aim to be economical in time and to save expense by carefully planning the materials; for example, it requires one yard of nainsook to make a corset cover, but three may be cut out of a two-yard piece.

A teacher should modify or elaborate her course in sewing according to her classes. She should make a collection of articles that would be of interest to her classes, and also have a set of models for her underwear students to see, and of any articles made in the hand-sewing class. It is a great help to her if she can have a glass show-case, so as to exhibit the best work.

Here it might be mentioned of a course in sewing that is sorely neglected in connection with school work, and that is infants' wear, for there are very few, if any, schools that have a course for it.

Our High School course is three years, and it includes basketry, crocheting, knitting, hand-sewing, underwear, shirt waist suits, embroidery and millinery.

In the hand-sewing class we teach the different stitches and their use, which is so important for the girls to understand. After each stitch is taught they apply it to an article of use. The first piece of work should be something attractive and quickly made. We give them a spoon-holder.

Now for a few minutes I will talk about underwear, and speak of the improvements in the styles of to-day from those of a few years ago. How much simpler the garments are—the one-piece corset cover, one-piece drawers, and the plain skirt and night-dress.

To-day we have decided that the average High School girl—no, I will say the average woman—has too much to do to spend very much time on unnecessary sewing in the making of underwear. You often hear the remark, “Hand-made underwear is so dainty, it is so much nicer than machine-made.” Can we not have dainty machine-made underwear, which will take less than half the time to make, for daintiness depends on having a garment well made, of good material and fresh? Why, when we are living in modern times, should we not take advantage of modern inventions?

People say the “hand-made” wears longer. The hand-made does not wear any longer than the machine-made, and in lace and embroidery it takes experts to tell the difference. The stitching on a machine-made garment will wear longer than the cloth, so why should it be done by hand.

A great deal can be said about drafting, which can be interesting and useful, or it can be made uninteresting and useless; there are discussions as to whether it is a waste of time to teach a class how to draft when good patterns can be bought for so little.

If by drafting we simply teach the making of one pattern, then I would say that it is a waste of time; but when drafting means that one is taught proportions, how to take measurements, the difference between good lines and poor lines; how to alter seams and pleats, so as to improve the appearance of the figure, and to draft a skirt so it may be cut out of a certain amount of material, for which one cannot buy a pattern; if this is what it means, then I consider it of great importance.

In a shirt-waist class we should work to teach the girls how to use a plain draft for making any kind of a waist garment.

It is a good scheme to have the girls work in twos. Let each girl pin her neighbor's waist in place and then, under the supervision of the teacher, make any necessary alterations. This not only gives the girls practice in fitting, but it also saves the teacher's time.

The making of cuffs and plackets may be very simply taught by having the class first make them in paper and pin them in place.

In the past the making and trimming of hats was entirely left to the milliners. There were few skilled needle-women, if any, ventured into this field of work. Recently, however, women have come to realize the great advantage to be obtained by making their own hats, and that hats made at home are just as modish as those made by milliners. In a class the students should be shown how to make a becoming hat out of inexpensive materials, for hats can be made becoming and yet cost very little.

The cost of materials used in a class and the total cost of hats should be discussed; also the hats when finished should be criticized as to the becomingness of color and lines.

There are two kinds of Domestic Art teachers—the one who teaches merely her subject and fills in the required number of hours in her class-room, and the other who uses her many opportunities that arise to help the girls, for she realizes the great importance of her subject and its influence on the future happiness of their lives. Teachers should realize that Domestic Art has a great influence on a girl's life, and every student that is sent out well trained, they by that much help humanity to better social conditions. They are not just teaching sewing or some of its related subjects, but something that will improve and better civilization, for as we increase the means and desire for better home-life, so we raise the social conditions of the country.

THE TEACHING OF HOUSE DECORATION.

CLARA E. ELLIOTT, NORMAL SCHOOL, HAMILTON.

Household Science, taken in its entirety, is a rather broad and complex subject, having many branches, but we are tempted to lose ourselves in one or two of the more prominent, to the neglect of the others, and in the majority of our Canadian schools we are laying all stress on the cookery. Do not misunderstand me and think I mean to under-estimate the incalculable value of the teaching of cooking, for I realize with each and everyone of you how wide an influence it will have not only on the physical, but the mental vigour of our people. But in cities and towns where the Household Science Course extends over four or five years as in Hamilton, some of that time might very profitably be devoted to the study of house decoration.

Canada is a land of homes. Few flats, few apartments, a great many people interested in selecting and building homes of their own, then why should our girls not be taught to plan and select and decorate them intelligently? Dr. Snyder, of the Hollywood High School, California, says: "To build an ideal home and wisely preside over it presupposes a scientific, artistic and moral equipment which does not come of itself;" he believes, too, that "there is nothing intrinsic to the Science of Home Making and Homekeeping to mark its inferiority to Greek or Mathematics as a subject of study, if properly taught, and in his school they are solving many problems of interest to us. Among other things they have a very complete six-roomed flat which serves many purposes, the most unique of which is that of a laboratory for the Household Science Thesis. The school thesis is usually, as everybody knows, an abbreviated extract copied from some musty volume in the school library. But a Household Science thesis at Hollywood is a performance. The girls who are to take part in it arrive on a Monday morning to find all the furnishings of the flat stacked in bewildering disorder on the floor of the living room. Then the thesis begins. They plan a new arrangement of the furniture and new decoration for the walls and tables. This is followed by various other things irrelevant to the subject in hand, such as the serving and entertaining friends at a luncheon on the following Thursday, the laundering of the linen and putting things in order

for the old life again, but what I wished to draw your attention to was the very practical way in which their knowledge of House-decoration is tested.

In reading Dr. Seath's report on Industrial Education, which has recently been mailed to each one of us, I noticed that a number of American schools such as the Albany Vocational School, Technical High School at Springfield, Boston High School and others give a prominent place to the study of house planning, decorating and furnishing. Most of these have apartments for practice, for which the furniture has been made by the boys in the Manual Training Department, while the girls have planned, designed, made and arranged the interior decoration.

Speaking of Industrial Education in Switzerland, this same report mentions the Zurich Trade School, which has a dozen suites of rooms such as are occupied by the poorer classes of the community. Each of the suites is completely furnished by manufacturers from time to time with examples of their various productions of an artistic and economical nature, and, as Dr. Seath says, such exhibitions must have an important and beneficial influence upon the character of the Swiss homes.

In England we read of the "Garden Cities," where the homes are greatly influenced by the various Craftsman Schools, and we find whole villages of a craftsman character most artistic, both from an architectural standpoint and for interior decorations, showing the influence of the teaching of House Decoration on the community. These schools have realized that environment has a wonderful and a potent influence on the individual and should be as rich in sensory stimuli as possible. Ruskin's father stood him before some of the world's greatest masterpieces for hours at a time that he might imbibe some of their beauty, and we all know the love and the appreciation for art and for the beautiful in everything which this early training fostered. Surround the child with a beautiful home and splendid pictures, and they will undoubtedly have an influence on his thoughts, his character and his work. So, too, the Canadian child will be largely influenced by the home in which he is reared, and it behooves us as Household Science teachers who have before us the work of training girls for these homes, to strive to inculcate in our girls a keen appreciation of the beautiful.

That there is need for the teaching of House Decoration in

Canadian Schools may be seen not only by visiting some of the poorer and middle class homes, but by going into the stores and looking at the cheaper grades of carpets, furniture, ornaments, etc.—carpets with huge bunches of roses, rugs with dogs, cats, birds as their central figures; papers brilliant in colour and riotous in design; furniture anything but substantial and beautiful.

And why are these things found in our stores? Not because the manufacturers would have them in their own homes, but because the general public has created a demand for it. They simply cater to the tastes of the people. We, as teachers, can do much to counteract this. If we can only teach our girls to see beauty in simple things; if we can only create in them a wholesome disdain for the brilliantly coloured, elaborately designed carpets, papers, etc., and the useless rubbish sold in the disguise of bric-a-brac and ornaments; if we can only make them see that “the ideal of beauty is simplicity and repose”; if we can teach them that we should “have nothing in our homes which we do not know to be useful or believe to be beautiful,” then no amount of time or energy which we put into our work will have been uselessly spent.

We Canadian teachers are not so fortunate as to have “Garden Cities” as in England, suites of rooms as in the Zurich Trade School, or even the apartments or flats such as the American schools are generously provided with, but the work may be made fairly practical by the use of charts. In our school we spend some time each year on the study of House Decoration and then in order that we may test whether the students have grasped the main principles or not we have them prepare charts such as these. On these charts they draw a plan for the ground floor of a house and then work out a color scheme for two adjacent rooms, showing the carpet, woodwork, hangings, curtains and wall paper which they would choose. Our girls become intensely interested in these charts and when at the end of last term I passed slips of paper in two of the classes asking the students to state which phase of our Household Science course had been most helpful to each as an individual and as a prospective teacher, House Decoration proved more than popular.

I have, however, anticipated your statement that this might be true for Normal Students, but would prove less successful if tried with children, so I have experimented with an entrance class, and you may be interested to know how the lesson was developed and

correlated with some of the other school subjects and the interest maintained.

* * * * *

We have in this portfolio the result of this series of lessons. Here you will see they have drawn the plans for both the first and second floor of the simple little eight-roomed house which we decided to build on our ideal site in our ideal environment, and on the following pages the colour scheme for each room in the house—hall, living-room, dining-room, kitchen, two bed-rooms, the bath room and den—has been worked out. The children made their own choice of material from the store of carpets, hangings, curtains, wall papers etc., which was opened up for them. This portfolio is being left on the table for you to look over at your leisure, but may I ask that you be generous in your judgment and remember it is the work of children and that while I tried to guide them occasionally in making their choice, I did not insist that they should do things my way. Like the teacher of paper-cutting who said: “If the child says it is a cat, it is a cat, even though it looks like a hippopotamus.” So in teaching House Decoration, unless a thing is radically wrong, and the child fails utterly to regard the three great principles of decoration—the law of gradation of color, the law of color harmony, and the law of appropriateness—her work is accepted, and I feel that I have accomplished my purpose if the children have taken one step towards Emerson’s ideal, “homes of virtue, sense and taste,” and have at least begun to appreciate homes which have the honest simplicity and unpretentious dignity of colonial times, the creature comforts of the nineteenth century and the intellectual, æsthetic and spiritual atmosphere of the twentieth.

MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

MANUAL TRAINING; RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT.

BY A. N. SCARROW, UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS, TORONTO.

Seeing that this is a kind of jubilee year with us in the Ontario Educational Association, I thought it might be well for me to place before you for discussion something of a stock-taking view of our work. None of us, I think, would say that Manual Training has accomplished in our Province all that might be desired; but no one can fail to see that the demand for it is not decreasing, but is rapidly on the increase. Indeed, we might say that there never was in Ontario a demand for this subject until now; for when it was introduced a few years ago, in its modern aspect, it was not because of any insistent demand, but that there might be a demand. The expectations of its promoters have, to some extent, been realized. The practical has always had to fight its way for recognition against the theoretical; the useful against what was claimed to be exclusively cultural. Mathematics had to fight for recognition; science has only recently established its right to a place of prominence, and Manual Training and Art are rather fortunate than otherwise in the advance they have made. There is not now an educationist, whose creed has been revised to date, who does not demand that education shall be vocational as well as cultural. It is acknowledged that every citizen has duties to his family and to society as well as to himself, and what is more important still it has come to be recognized that there is no antagonism between the two. Psychology has shown that the practical is cultural, indeed that it must be the real basis of all that is cultural; that the realities of the past can only be understood through the realities of the present, the unseen through the seen; that the child possesses faculties of expression as well as faculties of acquisition, and that the cultivation of the latter is to a large extent dependent upon the

cultivation of the former; that tongue and mind, that hand and brain must be trained together.

There are, however, multitudes of educationists whose creeds have not been revised to date, to whom psychology has not made any such revelations. They still believe that the highest end of education is to pass examinations, to reproduce statements learned from books. This, and this alone, to them is culture. The success of their schools is measured not by the ability of their students to adapt themselves to life conditions, but by the number who pass. This is probably not to be wondered at; for teachers, from the very nature of their work, must be conservative, must think as they have thought and must, in a great measure, teach as they have been taught. And worse even than this constitutional tendency is the demand of the public for results, not at "life's sounding anvil," but at the examination. The demand is not for knowledge and ability for their own sake, but for standing.

Dr. Seath, in his recent most excellent report on "Education for Industrial Purposes," says that the motive of most of our schools must be changed. This statement from one who has for so many years been closely and prominently connected with our schools would indicate that there is more to be desired than a slight change in the curriculum. The fact that our schools have for so long been turning out little more than teachers and professional men who have laid claim to most, if not all, of the culture of the past, has given rise to an academic tradition that cannot be overcome in a day. It requires a reformer of more than ordinary ability and courage to stand against the traditional methods and customs of the schools and overcome them. Gradually, however, it is being recognized that the schools have been chiefly for the few and have largely failed to appeal to the many, or provide the great body of the people with that education that would best fit them for the discharge of their duty to themselves, to their families and to the State. Thus has arisen in the last few years a somewhat insistent demand from some quarters for a more practical turn in educational aims. Such a demand could not, in the nature of things, arise from the schools themselves, neither could it effectively come from those most to be benefited by the change demanded. The demand has been more from the national than from the individual or the scholastic standpoint, and as a result we have the report above referred to and at the same time a Dominion

Commission on Technical Education investigating the question of more practical educational methods.

In anticipation of this demand, in some measure leading up to and preparing for it, we have had for about ten years the subject of Manual Training in some of the schools of the Province. But when we think that at this time the subject has been introduced in only 26 out of 279 urban municipalities, and in only one township, we are impressed with the fact that the results have not been very general. This is true notwithstanding the fact that the Education Department has endeavoured to encourage the work by free courses in the elementary work at Guelph, and by longer courses for those who wish to go into the work more thoroughly. Teachers are reluctant, or afraid, to launch out in the face of the traditional attitude of the schools in general and of many Inspectors in particular, even though they themselves may have much enthusiasm for the work. In addition to this opposition there is the fact that teachers have not seen the work applied in their own school experience and are very timid about launching out on a course that, theoretically, they believe to be worth while, but, practically, they fear would add to their burdens, and possibly arouse some opposition. This, then, is the position of Manual Training in Ontario after ten years of experience, and notwithstanding the fact that the strongest arguments have been presented in its favour at the meetings of this Association for several years past.

As a result of this academic tradition, of indifference on the part of those most to be benefited, and of opposition from some who are expected to lead, there is a scarcity of qualified teachers in this subject. If the course were taken in connection with an advanced academic course in History, Political Science and Economics, and made to lead to a degree in Arts equivalent to that offered in other departments but at the same time giving strong emphasis to the practical side of the work, it would not only advance the qualification of the teacher, but would give the work a dignity equal to that which tradition has given to the other Departments. If such a course were offered, running concurrently with the regular academic work, and not attached as an appendage to any other certificate, there would in a very few years, I believe, be a supply of teachers satisfactory both in quality and number. To overcome this scarcity in the supply the Department has been constrained to admit in a few cases those who have no qualification as teachers

and the result has not been highly satisfactory, but has, it seems to me, tended to defeat the very end for which it was intended. Any step that will lower rather than raise the dignity of the teacher's position, will not in the end further the best interests of the schools, or induce men to take up work in them.

I have mentioned the special appeals for these newer subjects by recent speakers at the Ontario Educational Association, but I wish to refer also to some criticism that has been offered. If there were no criticism we would have reason to believe that our work was unworthy of notice. At the last meeting of this Association, in the College and High School Department, there was read, by one of the leading High School Principals of the Province, a paper on "The Trend of Education in Our High Schools." This paper criticised things in general and Manual Training and Household Science in particular, and while we may neither agree nor disagree with all that the critic says, yet there is much food for thought in his "Too much fuss and feathers" argument. The criticism is in some respects just, but is couched in language that incidentally shows, not only the critic's attitude, but that of the schools towards those who lack what he calls "purely intellectual ability," although "very quick and eager to learn anything of a merely mechanical kind, or that demands manual dexterity." "What are we to do with such?" asks our critic, "shall we disregard them altogether or provide some course that will demand such intellectual ability as they are possessed of, and at the same time something to satisfy the desires of their hearts?" It is quite probable that this language was not intended to mean what it seems to imply, that "such ability as they are possessed of," even though it is vital enough to arouse the "desires of their hearts," is a kind of ability inferior to that which gives one an "inclination for the purely intellectual," even though the purely intellectual is often merely a matter of words. This language is just such as the average teacher would use in regard to Manual Training and the intellectual quality it demands. Indeed, it expresses the sentiment in which we have lived and moved and had our being most of our educational lives.

But, notwithstanding our critic's underlying sentiments, he offers a too just criticism of Manual Training. "It may look very pretty," he says, "to see a number of boys very busy with plane, saw, or chisel, while the instructor poses with evident pride amid walls decorated with sundry towel-racks, match boxes, etc., chips

and shavings being judiciously scattered over the benches and floors—but this will never satisfy the public when tested by actual life experience. There is too much fuss and feathers. They are attempting to make intellectual studies or some wonderful science out of what, if it has any value, and it has, is valuable only as it is made practical * * * * Yet these present methods appeal to some. When Johnny makes a box and takes it home, the result of his work is in visible form, and when displayed on the mantel will appeal to the admiring parents because he has something tangible to show; whereas the mastering of some principle in science or some passage in literature cannot be presented in visible form.”

Now I am inclined to accept as just much of this criticism, but in some sense we, as teachers of Manual Training, have been hampered by our inheritance. We have so long been taught that culture comes only from the study of the past as presented in books, that we are inclined to doubt whether the study of the present, as represented in things, will really produce results worthy of the name of culture. And to make it appeal to the “cultured,” Manual Training has been hedged about by rules and types and graded models, until the life has been cultured out of it. Such Manual Training could never appeal to a practical people in a new country like Canada. Another thing, the idealists who write books tell us that it is beneath the dignity of a man to put a value upon, or offer for sale the product of his own thought or skill. They seem to interpret the Word which says, “Man shall not live by bread alone,” as meaning that man does not need bread to live. They do not seem to discriminate between living to eat and eating to live. And it is this ideal, impractical view of education in general, as well as Manual Training in particular, that has forced the many out of our schools, leaving them stranded by the way, and has left the schools, dominated by traditional ideals and aims, to the few. Dr. Seath in his report says: “When first introduced as a school subject, Manual Training was generally regarded as having only a cultural value. Now in Ontario, as in other countries, an effort is being made to give it an industrial outlook in the secondary schools, and the higher forms of the public schools. That this modification in no way impairs its cultural value both psychology and experience have shown.” It is my opinion that the methods adopted to harmonize Manual Training with this merely cultural

idea have done more to handicap the teacher and discredit the work than has anything else.

Moreover, the time given to Manual Training in Ontario has in general been not more than one and a half or two hours per week, including the time for mechanical drawing. How absurdly inadequate this is to produce the results demanded a little computation will show. There are not more than forty weeks in a school year. If one and a half or two hours each week are given to Manual Training we have 60 or at most 80 hours per year—that is six or eight days in an ordinary shop or factory. This is the time at the disposal of the Manual Training teacher for drawing and lettering, for designing and planning as well as for timber and tools and their application in the actual work at the benches, which the boy wishes to be at all the time. How much would we expect an apprentice in any ordinary factory to learn in so short a time? The answer from the teacher's standpoint is not far to seek; but we are met with the reply that the comparison is not fair, as the boy's knowledge has time to shape itself between lessons from week to week. To some extent this is true, but with home work in the ordinary school subjects and the pressure of examinations, together with the general school attitude towards Manual Training, if it were not for the inherent attractiveness of the subject for the ordinary boy and its appeal to latent capacities that he is delighted to discover, how much time would there be for this "unconscious cerebration?" This shortness of time for the subject too often forces the teacher into questionable methods. In his haste to get work done he omits the drawing and lettering and he clears away difficulties that pupils should be left to overcome if they are to be resourceful and strong. If the time for the work were adequate, I am convinced it would pay, educationally, to leave the pupil more alone to observe and to experiment. We are too prone, in our instruction, to teach set lessons in this as in other subjects, leading here, as often in the ordinary school work, to the shadow without the substance. It is not a bad plan, I believe, when a pupil has had some little experience with the work to turn him loose and let him "make a spoon or spoil a horn" and if he wants the "spoon" the "horn" is pretty safe.

A few months ago I heard one of the Professors in Mathematics at Toronto University say that he would be pleased to see Geometry put back, where it once was, on the public school course.

From the standpoint of the Manual Training teacher this is much to be desired. Taught in connection with cardboard work and the ordinary work of the Manual Training class, it would have a meaning, an application, that is not apparent to the student in the ordinary method of presenting the subject. It would then be used, as the name would imply, as a means to an end, instead of being presented as a mere abstract and isolated subject. As at present taught we find among the teachers themselves too few who can apply the simplest geometrical facts to the ordinary problems of the manual training room. What is true of Geometry is also true of Mensuration, of much of the arithmetic, of applied design and of a great deal of the science. I cannot illustrate what I mean in reference to Science better than to refer you to what I did in one of my classes last year. It was a good illustration of how not to do it. The Science teacher wanted some pieces of apparatus for his Form II. Science work. The pupils of that form were not taking Manual Training, so the work was given to the Form I. class, and having in mind the fact that most of them had never done anything with tools before, I considered the results, from the mechanical point of view, were fairly satisfactory; but unfortunately for the boys they had only a very vague idea of the application of the work to Science—such an idea as would be conveyed to the ordinary boy who had not studied Physical Science by the terms “galvanoscope” the “theory of parallel currents,” etc. How much this work would have gained in meaning as well as in mechanical finish if the boys had known not only the name but also the thing! And this is only an illustration of the waste that is to be found in much of the ordinary work of our schools.

I would like, now, to view the prospects of the Manual Arts in relation to the demands of present-day industrial life. To understand the question we must take a view of school larger than the confines of the room in which we teach. This narrow school-room view of education has done much to discredit the schools with the industrial and manufacturing classes. And yet, until very recently, we have been somewhat suspected by those whom we desired to understand and benefit, access to their shops and factories being hedged about to such an extent that we were very shy of attempting to break through the hedge. This, however, is to some extent clearing, and a better understanding taking its place.

The opinion of the leaders in present day industrial life is that

the ordinary teaching in school does not give pupils the power of independent thinking or ability to apply their knowledge to practical purposes. Dr. Seath in his report quotes a manufacturer as saying: "What we want in our factories is apprentices who, by their previous education, have been made both resourceful and strong." May we not ask: "Is it to be expected that a boy brought up in the city or town, who, unlike the old-time country lad, has never had to depend upon his own initiative and efforts to accomplish any work outside of the school, who has been led to view life through the medium of books, is it to be expected that such a boy at 13 or 14 years of age, when he will probably pass the Entrance Examination, will be able to apply his knowledge in ordinary business affairs?" There must be some experience with the realities of life, some independent, self-directed thought, in suiting means to ends, before a boy can become resourceful and strong, as this manufacturer requires. The subjects of Arithmetic and Geometry, of Science and of Art should be treated as means to a definite and desired end, rather than as a theoretical and vaguely understood end in themselves. To quote again: "From the point of view of the necessities of the future workman, it is of the utmost importance that these subjects—Manual Training, Art, and Drawing—be given an industrial bent. And if in addition the other subjects of the public school course are brought into closer relation to the pupil's life than they have hitherto been, they will become the best, and, indeed, the only possible preparation for industrial work before the age of 14. We are going to make the boy a workman, not necessarily a scholar, and a fair knowledge of the essentials should now suffice. * * * * Nor should it be forgotten that he will continue the most important academic subjects in the industrial school where they will be none the less cultural because they have an industrial application." *

* * * "For our general industrial schools in particular we must have teachers who know and can teach the other subjects of the course, in addition to, and in correlation with, the drawing of the wood and metal work, which have so far been the main stay of the Manual Training departments. In this class of school satisfactory results are best obtained when the related subjects are taught by the same teacher. At this stage he alone can correlate them properly." * * * * "Competent teachers for our schools we must have at any cost, and their training must be pro-

vided for in this Province. We need a new breed, with a new outlook and with new ambitions."

I have taken the liberty of quoting somewhat freely from this report by the Superintendent of Education, especially in this latter part of my paper, in order that the views presented might come from a broader outlook and wider vision than my own experience could give. There is one other word that I should like to add. While I have spoken chiefly of Manual Training, I believe my remarks would in almost every case apply as well to Art as we have it in our schools. It has had the same struggles for recognition, the same opposition to meet and the same successes to record; and in its future outlook it stands with the practical subjects of the course, as the foundation for industrial progress and efficiency.

THE VALUE OF ART IN ITS CORRELATION WITH OTHER SUBJECTS OF STUDY

MISS AUTA POWELL, TORONTO.

The few suggestive remarks I have planned to make this morning should hardly be dignified with the name address. They are intended to draw attention to the main standpoint from which every teacher should view Art Education, not so much as a subject in itself, added to an already crowded curriculum, but as a means whereby every subject may be made clearer and more attractive.

We are prone to look upon each subject as a thing by itself, forgetting that it is really the development of certain qualities of mind, in our pupils, in which our task consists.

The hammering of a given number of ideas into the heads of students is not education. Each individual must, by his own efforts, educate himself; therefore whatever renders him more alert, and more capable, puts him in a better condition for acquiring knowledge. It follows that the teacher who works from this standpoint is building a foundation upon which each child will continue to build a definite structure of greater or less beauty, not an erratic conglomeration of vague, formless ideas.

Why should I teach Arithmetic?

Why should I teach Grammar?

Why should I teach History, etc.?

should be answered by every teacher concerning each subject before that subject is taught. Don't you see that, with the very best intentions in the world, it is impossible to be honest unless you know why you teach these things?

When you are convinced of its real purpose you can get behind your subject and push it in the right direction. Then each subject instead of being a huge mountain of rules and facts that has to be gone through patiently, painstakingly, yet withal at frightful speed, becomes a means whereby the difficulties of both teacher and pupil are lightened.

No one doubts the truth of the old proverb, "Many hands make light work," but who cannot call up a vision of work made impossible and "confusion worse confounded" reigning because of many hands all trying to do the same thing at the same time in different ways.

Properly regulated, with each fulfilling its appointed mission,

there is no reason why the teacher should not find that (in moderation, of course), many subjects make his work lighter.

Some months ago the editor of the *School Arts Book* collected, from a great number of supervisors and teachers of drawing, the following reasons for teaching Art in the Public Schools. I give them to you because they show what enthusiastic, but none the less sensible teachers of experience find, after careful consideration, that Art has done for their pupils.

This list of twenty good reasons, each given by two or more teachers, is arranged in order, those having the greatest number of signatures coming first.

1. It develops appreciation of the beautiful.
2. Gives command of the universal language for expressing ideas of form.
3. Cultivates accuracy of observation.
4. Gives skill of hand.
5. Increases the value of industrial products.
6. Promotes appreciation of excellence in manufactured articles.
7. Helps to establish good habits of thought and action.
8. Gives power to express beauty.
9. Encourages originality or individuality.
10. Develops the creative faculty.
11. Enhances the enjoyment of colour.
12. Stimulates the imagination.
13. Develops judgment.
14. Reveals natural ability.
15. Is a help in other school studies.
16. Increases the desire for beautiful surroundings.
17. Awakens ambitions in pupils when other studies fail.
18. Furnishes many a means of livelihood.
19. Increases interest in commonplace things.
20. Promotes enjoyment of life.

Many others upon the authority of a single witness were given, but the foregoing reasons ought to be considered sufficient to give Art an abundant entrance into the daily life of the schoolroom.

Let us think of Art this morning in its relation to the other school subjects from two viewpoints.

First as to the help it would give to both teacher and pupils, through its effect on the pupils if they were given a training in Art though the teacher made no use of it whatever.

Second, some of the ways in which the teacher may correlate Art advantageously with other school subjects.

We will make a list of these subjects and consider each from these two viewpoints.

LIST.

Reading and Literature,	Writing,
Spelling,	Manual Training,
Composition and Grammar.	Household Science,
History,	Hygiene,
Geography,	Nature Study,
Arithmetic,	Manners and Morals.

READING AND LITERATURE.

The study of Art is a help to Reading and Literature

Because:—

It trains the eye to see quickly.

Cultivates appreciation of the beautiful.

Trains to see the beauty in common things.

Enables one to enjoy imagery.

Makes the sense of rhythm keener.

Gives a finer appreciation of harmony.

Develops the power of silent meditation.

Helps in the interpretation of good literature.

Trains in expression.

Trains in concentration.

Strengthens memory.

Gives confidence in self and develops individuality.

It may be correlated with Reading and Literature

By using it in testing word recognition.

The teacher draws and pupils write names.

The teacher writes names and the pupils draw.

By using it in developing the meaning of new words and thoughts.

In the illustration of lessons by pupils.

By embodying the meaning of a paragraph or a stanza in a picture.

Words which require expression may be written in or underlined with appropriate colour.

A beautiful picture may be used to help in the interpretation of literature.

Books of quotations may be made and decorated.

SPELLING.

The study of Art helps in spelling

Because:—

It trains the visual memory.

Cultivates the habit of looking at things as a whole.

Cultivates habits of accuracy.

Gives control of the hand.

It may be correlated with Spelling

By the teacher drawing or showing pictures of objects and having the pupils write names, or the teacher may write the names and the pupils draw the pictures.

Written words may be lettered by pupils.

Silent letters or difficult words may be written in colour.

Honour Rolls for good spellers may be made.

Book covers, for lists of words often misspelled, may be constructed and decorated.

COMPOSITION AND GRAMMAR.

It helps in the study of Composition and Grammar

Because:—

It gives power to take a comprehensive view and relate ideas.

Gives power to express.

Encourages originality and individuality.

Trains observation.

Cultivates definiteness.

Teaches the value of unity, coherence and emphasis.

Helps to see fine distinctions.

Trains in accuracy.

It may be correlated with Composition and Grammar

By making good pictures the subject of compositions.

Written criticisms of drawings may be made.

A description of the steps taken in a drawing or painting lesson may be given as an exercise.

Compositions and essays may be written on sheets with well

related margins and enriched by decorative initials, stops, and tailpieces and otherwise illustrated.

Grammar and Composition note books may be made with appropriate covers.

HISTORY.

It is a help to History

Because:—

It trains in the study of the relation of whole to parts.

Enables one to take a comprehensive view of characters and events.

Trains memory.

Trains judgment.

Cultivates the power of concentration.

Cultivates the habit of forming definite ideas.

It may be correlated with History

By the illustration of events.

By drawing maps, plans of battles, fortifications, attacks, engagements, situations, etc.

Drawing of primitive weapons, dress, implements, etc.

Illustrations of primitive occupations.

Illustrations of the dress, habits, buildings, occupations, etc., of any people in the past.

History note books may be made and decorated.

GEOGRAPHY.

It aids in the study of Geography

Because:—

The visual memory is cultivated.

The power of imaging strengthened.

Sense of proportion developed.

It teaches to realize the whole before its parts.

Develops the sense of proportion.

Teaches definite relationships.

Cultivates the habit of comparing.

Creates interest in surroundings.

It may be correlated with Geography

By the explanation of definitions through drawings.

By the making of maps and charts.

By the illustration of buildings, products, industries, exports, etc.

By the making of pictures of animals, plants, trees, architecture etc., of different countries.

Geography note books and scrap books may be planned, arranged and decorated.

ARITHMETIC.

The study of Art is an aid to Arithmetic

Because:—

It cultivates accuracy.

Truthfulness.

Concentration.

Self reliance.

Trains in logical thinking.

Renders more alert.

Teaches forethought and planning and cultivates systematic habits.

Correlated with Arithmetic:—

It is useful in primary work in helping children to realize the meanings of numbers.

Useful as a test to see if they understand.

Useful in teaching addition, subtraction, etc.

Useful in working out the solutions of various problems.

Useful in seat work for primary children.

WRITING.

It is an aid to Writing

Because:—

It develops silent activity.

Increases self-control.

Strengthens voluntary attention.

Develops the sense of proportion.

Cultivates neatness and accuracy.

Gives practice in free arm movements.

It may be correlated with Writing

By using ellipses and the elementary strokes of letters to build up pictures as an exercise.

By the attractive spacing of margins on written pages and in the writing of letters and addressing of envelopes.

The use of decorative manuscript initials.

Books made containing well written quotations.

Honour Rolls, etc.

MANUAL TRAINING.

It is an aid in Manual Training

Because:—

It teaches forethought and planning.

Cultivates accuracy, self-control, and truthfulness.

Trains the sense of proportion.

Gives a finer appreciation of harmony.

Trains the eye to see quickly.

Develops the power to see beauty in common things.

Cultivates an appreciation of the beautiful.

It may be correlated with Manual Training

By using it in the choice of materials and colour schemes for constructed objects; also in the choice of the shape and proportion of these.

By the use of borders, corners, surface patterns and single decorative units for the decoration of constructed objects.

In making designs for hinges and lock escutcheons.

In the placing of the title, the choice of lettering, and the decoration of book covers.

By making book plates, wood blocks and stencils.

In the planning of attractive margins, decorative tail pieces, initials and other illustrations for the pages of books.

In the furnishing of constructed play houses or doll houses.

HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE.

Art is a help in Household Science

Because:—

It cultivates close observation.

Requires neatness and accuracy in measurements.

Fosters the sense of harmony in color, form, and the relation of things.

Increases the sense of proportion.

Promotes a love for things simple in form and easily cleansed.

Gives control of the muscles.

It may be correlated with Household Science

In the illustrating of parts of foods.

In the choice of dishes.

In the arranging of table decorations and decorations of all kinds.

In the arrangement of furniture.

In the choice of colour and colour schemes.

In the selection of garments and the making of patterns.

In the embroidering of garments and the making of ornamental stitching of all kinds.

HYGIENE AND PHYSICAL CULTURE.

It assists in the teaching of Hygiene and Physical Culture

Because:—

It strengthens memory of form and teaches the relation of parts.

Teaches appreciation of symmetry.

Calls attention to and cultivates the desire for good carriage, physical perfections and grace of movements.

It may be correlated with Hygiene and Physical Culture

By making drawings of parts, organs, joints, etc.

Explanatory figures may be drawn by the teacher.

By developing the left hand through ambidexterous drawing.

Illustrations of good positions for standing and sitting may be made.

Illustrative pictures of exercises and healthful games may be drawn by the children.

Those who stand well may be chosen for models.

NATURE STUDY.

Art is an assistance in Nature Study

Because:—

It promotes an interest in nature and natural forms.

Fosters an appreciation of beauty.

Gives power to express beauty.

Trains in observation.

Increases the appreciation of form and colour.

Gives the child a means of expressing what he has learned or discovered.

It is useful as a correlation with Nature Study

In the arrangement of specimens and collections.

In the drawing of plants, trees and other natural forms and their parts.

In the illustration of cells, structure, etc.

In illustrating seed germination, seed equipment for locating, etc.

In the appropriate decoration of covers for note-books or portfolios for mounted specimens.

MUSIC.

Art aids in the study of music

Because:—

It improves the taste.

Helps to develop appreciation of the fine and beautiful in music.

Trains in rhythm.

Trains the visual memory.

Helps in the memorization of music and aids in the interpretation of descriptive passages.

It may be correlated with music

By the use of colour in teaching tone.

By the making and arranging of musical exercise books.

MANNERS AND MORALS.

It is of assistance in the teaching of manners and morals

Because:—

It shows the necessity for the subordination of each part to the good of all.

Teaches self control.

Fosters an appreciation of harmony.

Cultivates truthfulness.

It may be correlated with Manners and Morals

By using it for busy work; thus, as interest and duty lie along the same path, minimizing the possibilities of the child's falling into deceitful ways.

By the illustration of such selections as—

Hearts, like doors, are oped with ease
By two very little keys;
But don't forget that they are these,
"I thank you, sir," and "If you please!"

By a comparison of the principles of good design and harmony in Art Composition with the laws underlying social harmony.

This by no means exhausts the possibilities of art when correlated with other school studies.

Much depends on the temperament of the teacher. One may seize upon an idea, that seems utterly foolish and unreasonable to another, and carry it out in his work in such a way as to reach and impress permanently for good every pupil in his class as well as himself.

A different thought may find a responsive chord in the mind and heart of another, and through its working out lasting benefits may result.

To each of us much that we read or hear or see is as a closed book. Along the way of life, from time to time, there comes an illuminating flash that gives to all of life—present, past and future—a new purpose and a new sweetness that makes us forget weariness, and monotony is swallowed up in a sudden comprehension of the meaning of it all.

In the teaching profession there is a possibility of these revelations coming oftener, perhaps, than in any other walk of life, and to me it seems that the study of art quickens the student's power to perceive these intimations of the Divine purpose.

CANADIAN AND AMERICAN METHODS IN MANUAL ARTS.

H. J. BAKER, TORONTO.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen—According to the programme, I am to tell you something about Canadian and American methods in the Manual Arts. For me to say very much about Canadian methods would be somewhat difficult, in view of the fact that I have been absent from Canada for so many years, and since returning have not had a single opportunity to visit another school whilst the classes were in session. However, I have gained the impression that here in Toronto you know where you are at, and, in spite of the temptation to swerve to the right or left, which every teacher of special work must feel, from time to time, you pursue the even tenor of your way, choosing what is best from the “hodge-podge,” which is presented to us from every direction, and leaving the faddist, with his shop-window displays and circus style of self-advertisement, to his wicked way.

Your manual training (I hope soon to be allowed to say our manual training) is all your own, which is as it should be, for I need hardly say that no country, or even section of country, can safely copy the exact methods of another, and have those fit in perfectly to its own conditions.

English manual training, excellent as it no doubt is, would not suit Canada at all, neither would their methods of supervision or inspection—yet they thrive on it.

To my way of thinking, we can do no better than we have done in the past, and that is, keep one eye fixed on the big experimental laboratory of our southern neighbours, and cull carefully from their findings.

It is almost superfluous to say to you progressive gentlemen, that since entering the manual training field some fourteen years ago, I have seen some fearful and wonderful changes take place in the attitude of the various leaders in the United States.

Some of these gentlemen, “stand-patters,” when manual training was first introduced into the school room, have turned complete somersaults, and it would be difficult at the present moment to say which end they are standing on, as they do not know themselves.

Our first experience, as some of you will remember, was known as the Swedish Sloyd, copying literally the model made by the Teacher.

This worked well and good results were obtained, but the latent originality in the child was not being developed and brought out, and so we leaped far out into the dizziness of space, with no thought, apparently, as to where we were to find foothold. The children were to work out their own salvation.

Initiative was the watchword, the teacher was almost a superfluity for the time being, and, as you will no doubt remember, in the school conducted by the late Colonel Parker, at the University of Chicago, the pupils were actually allowed to work out their little schemes in the manual training room in their own way, unhampered by even the presence of an instructor.

This, however, resulted in too much initiative and the pendulum swung back again.

Without this brief review, it would not be easy to describe methods in the United States. We are now in the throes of Industrial Training.

Everything in school or out of school must be subservient to the vocational idea. If a boy should bite a toothpick he must do it in such a way that the toothpick may be of use for another purpose. Our arithmetic must be vocational. Woe betide the boy who likes mathematics for its own sake and not with a definite purpose in view. His doom is sealed. And what shall we do with the teacher who teaches only to educate and leaves out shop methods, shop spelling, shop reading, etc.? Hang him high as Haman.

These are the mooted questions of the present hour in the United States, and perhaps elsewhere for aught I know, but thanks be to the powers, not among the best thinkers of Canada. Shop education we need, and must have, for a goodly proportion of our children, but let us not run to seed and try to cure all our educational ailments out of the same bottle or even with the same label.

The time allotted to this paper and its discussions makes me think that it must of necessity be brief. I will, therefore, follow the plan of the sermons we enjoyed so in our boyhood and begin to draw to a close. One of the brightest spots on the manual training horizon is the drawing together of the Art and Manual training associations with the splendid opportunities thus afforded of co-

operation in our work; for why should not our work be beautiful as well as useful? I think so much of those words of Wm. Morris, "Have nothing in your homes that you do not know to be useful and believe to be beautiful." This, it seems to me, should be the text in our choice of projects, and thus we should teach our boys to choose for themselves.

The systems followed and the methods used in the manual training centres in the United States differ as widely as the individuality of the teachers, and it would be difficult here to describe any one of these as ideal. Undoubtedly we can learn from them, even as they can learn a great deal from us, and I look forward to the day when School Boards will see the wisdom of sending their special teachers abroad to see what is being done, instead of going themselves and then attempting to tell what they have seen. Information acquired in this way is of little value to a teacher compared with that gained at first hand. If I were asked to make a criticism of the work in the Toronto schools it would be that there is not enough of it. I would like to see a continuous chain of manual training, from the work done in the Kindergarten right through the Public School and on into the High School. We have to come to it, and the sooner we do it the better for those children who are now serving their time. This plan is being put into effect in a majority of the larger American cities with most gratifying results. Interest in the purely literary work is stimulated by the addition of manual training courses and a large increase in registration and better average attendance is shown. In the cities where women are engaged in bench work there appears to be a lack of interest among the pupils, and the work does not progress as it should.

The Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education in the United States has issued some very interesting pamphlets. Membership fees in this Society, open to all teachers of the Manual Arts, are fixed at the nominal sum of two dollars a year. This entitles the member to all of the matter published by the Society from time to time. If we believe with Michael Angelo that "Nothing makes the soul so pure, so beautiful, as doing something useful," than we, of all people, should go on from day to day, happy and inspired by the thought that we have found our work.

DESIGN WORK IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

T. W. KIDD, RIVERDALE HIGH SCHOOL.

To the teaching of art has been attributed many desirable results. It is said to train the observation, develop the æsthetic sense of taste, and the appreciation of the beautiful to an extent hardly possible in any other study. But it is often difficult to decide what particular form of art teaching gives the best results. To me it seems that this is to be obtained in the study of design. It is from this study that a student is enabled to tell the merits or defects of any pattern; to choose wall paper, for example, and other home decorations that are suitable and in good taste. This power becomes of great use to him in after-life, no matter what his occupation may be. The influence of our surroundings is subtle, but, none the less, of great importance; probably of greater importance than any of us realize.

But design is a big subject, and the study of any one branch done intensively would require years of work before it would be complete. This intensive study of one particular application of design is not at all suitable for school purposes. It would lead to a knowledge of one trade only, without that power of discrimination of design in general. On the other hand, abstract design has no interest for children. There must be some relation between the design and their own lives. As far as possible, it should be based on some construction. Design is so closely connected with material, and the use to which the article designed is to be put that it is impossible to have a child understand all the conditions which go to make up a good form unless he actually constructs the object and applies the design to it. For this reason the best conditions for teaching this subject exist where handicraft is taught in correlation with the work in design. It is in this way only that a student can fully understand why a design suitable for a cushion cover, for example, would not be suitable for a teapot stand.

Most designs are based on natural forms, for this reason it is well to begin a course in design by reproducing in pencil, water-colour, crayon or charcoal a number of plant or animal forms. Of these mediums, perhaps water-colours is the most useful, since by its use a more faithful reproduction can be made. Even in these water-colour sketches the fundamental principles of design may be

well introduced. In the arrangement of the flower spray, the position of the border lines, the direction of the principal lines of the composition and in the choice of colour there is opportunity to develop most of the laws of design.

All this work is largely imitative, as its purpose is the reproduction of nature; while design is largely inventive. Then the next step would naturally be to gradually idealize the object depicted. Perhaps a leaf is too large, or placed in an awkward position. The attention of the class is directed to defects such as these, one at a time, to see how a more pleasing effect can be obtained. Wobbly and uncertain lines are to be made more definite, awkward curves more subtle, and the masses well balanced. Contrary motion is to be avoided, for students persist in crossing the floral sprays, and in so doing destroy the appearance of radial growth. At every step the student should be taught to review his work, and not to leave all the improvement to be done at the last.

The students might next learn to use conventional motifs derived from the natural forms already studied. The development of these motifs is rather too difficult a subject to be undertaken at this stage. Then, if they learn to adapt certain motifs suitably, it should be sufficient. After considerable use in modifying conventional forms, they are in a better position to originate new forms. But it is well to be in no haste to obtain originality in this way, for the results are seldom satisfactory. It is a much better plan to have the students express their individuality in adapting certain motifs to suit some object. It will be found that, without allowing the students free scope for the imagination, there will be as many principles of design violated as can be taken up in class.

Examples of good design similar to that required should be exhibited. These may be from various sources—clippings from newspapers, magazine advertisements, ceramics, plain objects well coloured, and especially drawings made by other students. These are not to be copied, but to serve as a standard by which the class can criticize and judge their work. Professional artists use all the material they can find in making their original designs. Then, why should we expect good results from children who have probably seen but very few examples of good art, unless they are given good models to work from?

In spite of the best presentation of this subject, there will be

some backward students. There are always some in every class who seem to have but little creative ability. It is of no use for them to gaze and gaze at a drawing to find out if it is well-balanced. An alternative arrangement must be proposed. This must not be merely thought out, but put down on paper, so that it may be compared with the first attempt. In this way a choice can be made. A very little difference in the plan often makes a very great difference in the effect.

It is important that the pupil grasp the relation between the pattern and the structure. The design should not be prominent, but should appear to form some intrinsic part of the model, as it were, to rise out of the structure and thus emphasize the form. At the same time the design must not interfere with the function of the object, but rather point out the use to which the article is put. This idea can be well developed by the use of simple strap borders, with the addition of flowers or frets. Thus for the top of a box the border might be strengthened at the corners by a simple loop. If the lid were provided with hinges and a clasp these would serve as good points from which the design might branch out. As this treatment of the subject proceeds, the students learn to make decorative arrangements within even complex spaces.

In this work it is well to develop the harmonies of colour along with the forms of design. It is rather interesting to notice how much more quickly students learn to make good designs than they are to apply suitable colours to these designs. Children are naturally quicker to appreciate form than colour, especially such as is used in design. To overcome this the attention may be drawn more closely to the colour than the form of the design, by planning a three-colour harmony in a simple rectangular space. It may be presented to the class as a rug pattern to design. The pattern should be the simplest possible, since it is the colour that is being emphasized. The rug may be represented by a simple rectangular area decorated with a strap border suitably placed. It would need to be labelled to be known as a rug pattern, but that is no matter. The aim is to have the harmonies of colour understood, and this can be done best by having the whole attention drawn to the colouring. Calling it a rug design makes the problem more definite, and removes it from being a mere school exercise. In addition it draws attention to colour harmonies which might

be used in the home. This problem of colour balancing cannot be made too simple. It requires the most persistent effort on the part of most pupils before they can obtain a nicely balanced colour scheme. Good examples and class criticisms are useful helps; but it is a problem which must be worked out by the students themselves.

In the making of their designs students should be allowed full liberty to use all devices possible. By this means attention may be more fully given to the planning of the pattern. Thus a symmetrical pattern may be sketched with a soft lead pencil on one side only, and the other side obtained by folding the paper and rubbing it down. Many such devices may be employed with great advantage in saving time. It is seldom that a pleasing design is obtained on the first attempt, and yet children dislike very much working over their drawings; they much prefer to begin a new design each time a mistake is seen. But it is only by changing again and again the original drawing that a final form free from defects can be obtained. For this reason it is best to encourage the class to plan the design on separate paper first. Then, after necessary alterations have been made, the result is transferred to the paper, where it is to be finished. Blue carbon paper is not as useful for this as the black carbon paper, as the blue lines spread when the paper becomes wet. If this cannot be obtained a good substitute can be easily made by rubbing stove polish over a sheet of tough wrapping paper. In the choice and arrangement of motifs within a certain space it is a good plan to have the motifs cut out, and by sliding them around, the best position can be quickly found.

One of the most successful methods of applying designs is in the form of stencils. These offer probably more variety than any other form of decorative art. But it is well not to begin a course in stencilling till the students have been well introduced to some of the fundamental laws of design. In other methods the pattern may be easily modified till a suitable form is obtained; but in stencilling the effect of the pattern is not seen till the design has been cut out, and the stencil applied in colour. If this is a failure, after so much trouble has been taken with it, the student is sure to be much discouraged. If the stencil is to be used but a few times, it may be cut from heavy drawing paper, but when it is to be used many times heavy manilla paper should be used. A

spraying of fixatif will prevent the paper from absorbing the water colour. A rather stiff brush, not too much filled with paint, should be used else the colour will be found to run under the stencil. It is well to have the stencil made with no loose flapping ends, else it will not lie flat while the paint is being applied.

On the other hand, if the connecting bands are made too prominent they are apt to become a source of weakness to the unity of the design by separating the spaces too far apart. Thus stencils offer difficulties which serve as interesting problems for the more advanced students.

A course in design would not be complete without some reference to historical ornament; but in the short time devoted to art in the High School it is a question how much importance should be attached to it.

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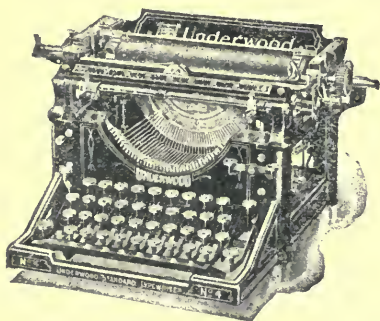
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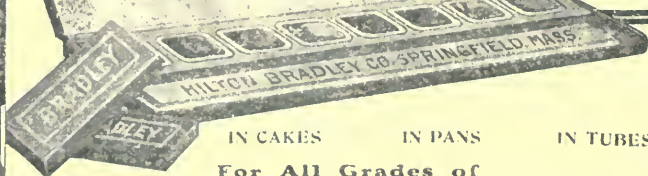
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OFFICIAL CALENDAR

OF THE

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January:

High, Public and Separate Schools open. [H. S. Act, sec. 51; P. S. Act, sec. 7; S. S. Act, sec. 81]. (*3rd day of January*).

First meeting of Rural School Trustees. [P. S. Act, sec. 68 (1)]. (*Wednesday following the annual meeting*).

Polling day for trustees in Public and Separate Schools. [P. S. Act, sec. 60 (c); S. S. Act, sec. 31 (3)]. (*1st Wednesday in January*).

First meeting of Municipal Boards of Education. (*Thursday after first Monday in January*). [B. of E. Act, sec. 9].

Appointment of High School Trustees by Municipal Councils other than County. [H. S. Act, sec. 14. 21 (1); see also Mun. Act, secs. 259, 587]. (*2nd Monday in January*).

Secretaries of Rural School Boards to notify Inspector and Municipal Clerk of names and post office address of Trustees and Teachers. (*Before 15th January*). [P. S. Act, sec. 76 (c)].

Trustees' Annual Reports to Inspectors, due. [P. S. Act, sec. 76 (e); sec. 118]. (*On or before 15th January*).

Annual Reports of Kindergarten attendance, to Department, due. (*Not later than 15th January*).

Annual Reports of Separate Schools, to Department, due. [S. S. Act, sec. 28 (18); 33 (9)]. (*On or before 15th January*).

Annual Reports from High School Boards, to Department, due. [H. S. Act, sec. 24 (1)]. (*On or before 15th January*).

First meeting of Public School Boards in cities, towns and incorporated villages. [P. S. Act, sec. 67 (1)]. (*3rd Wednesday in January*).

Appointment of High School Trustees by County Councils. [H. S. Act, sec. 14, 21 (1); see also Mun. Act, 259, 587]. (*4th Tuesday in January*).

February:

First meeting of High School Boards and Union Boards of Education. [H. S. Act sec. 22 (1)]. [B. E. Act, sec. 16]. (*1st Wednesday in February*).

Rural Boards of Trustees may appoint Truant Officer if Township Council neglects to. (*Council to appoint before 1st February*). [Truancy Act, sec. 7 (5)].

March:

Separate School supporters to notify Municipal Clerks. [S. S. Act, sec. 42 (1)]. (*On or before 1st March*).

High Schools, second term, and Public and Separate Schools close. [H. S. Act, sec. 51; P. S. Act, sec. 7; Sep. Sch. Act, sec. 81]. (*Thursday before Easter Sunday*).

Night Schools close (Session 1909-1910). Reg. 16. (*Close 31st March*).

April:

Returns by Clerks of counties, cities, etc., of population, to Department, due. [P. S. Act, sec. 40]. (*On or before 1st April*).

High Schools, third term, and Public and Separate Schools open after Easter Holidays. [H. S. Act, sec. 51; P. S. Act, sec. 7; S. S. Act, sec. 81]. (*Second Monday after Easter Sunday*).

Reports on Night Schools due (Session 1909-1910). (*Not later than the 15th April*).

Notice by candidates for the High School Entrance Examination, to Inspectors, due. (*Before 1st May*). H. S. Reg. 14.

May:

ARBOR DAY (*1st Friday in May*).

EMPIRE DAY. (*1st school day before 24th May*).

VICTORIA DAY. (*Tuesday*). 24th May.

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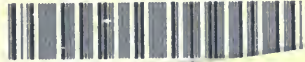
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